

**FAST TRACK LAND REFORM PROGRAMMES AND HOUSEHOLD FOOD
SECURITY: THE CASE OF MUTARE DISTRICT (ZIMBABWE)**

by

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DECLARATION

I hereby declare that the dissertation submitted for the degree Masters at the College of Agriculture and Environmental Sciences, Department of Agriculture, Animal Health and Human Ecology, UNISA, is my own original work and has not previously been submitted to any other institution of higher education.

Signed *R.A. Mudefi*

Date 15/11/10

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
List of figures	v
List of tables	vi
Acronyms	vii
Copyright release form	viii
Approval form	ix
Dedication	x
Abstract	xi
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
Land reform and household food security	1
Land reform in Zimbabwe	2
Types of land reform models	8
Challenges of the FTLRP in Mutare	9
The land audit report	11
The land reform and political violence	14
Statement of the problem	15
Definition of terms	17
Conclusion	18
Chapter 2: Review of related literature	19
Introduction	19
Land reform in Botswana	22
Land reform in Mozambique	24
Land reform in Malawi	27
Objectives of land reform programmes	30
Implementing a land reform programme	32
Household food security	33
Country food policies	44
Conclusion	45
Chapter 3: Research methods	46
Introduction	46

Analytical framework	46
Research design	48
Population and sample	51
Data collection procedures	51
The questionnaire	52
Data presentation	54
Conclusion	56
Chapter 4: Data presentation and analysis	57
Introduction	57
Demographical information	57
Household characteristics	59
Means of livelihood	62
Food availability	65
Food reserves and storage	67
Children's diet	70
Losing weight	75
Harvest	83
Conclusion	85
Chapter 5: Conclusion and recommendation	86
Introduction	86
Results	87
Recommendations	91
Conclusion	95
Bibliography	96
Appendix 1 – Interview form	99
Appendix 2 – Questionnaire	100

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 2.1: A field after the FTLRP	20
Figure 2.2: Communal farming in the rural area	24
Figure 2.4: Types of Household food Security	37
Figure 3.1: Analytical framework	48
Figure 3.2: Qualitative data analysis process	55
Figure 4.1: Pie chart showing proportions of populations	58
Figure 4.2: Members in different households	60
Figure 4.3: Households with members between the stated age groups	61
Figure 4.4: Level of education	63
Figure 4.5: Employment by sectors before the FTLRP	64
Figure 4.6: Harvested food and how long it lasted	67
Figure 4.7: Components of a balanced diet	68
Figure 4.8: Households that could not feed their households	69
Figure 4.9A: Households with adults who had to cut their food	71
Figure 4.9B: Households that had to eat less	71
Figure 4.10 Adults who had to cut their food	73
Figure 4.11: Households with members that lost weight	76
Figure 4.12A: Households with members that missed some meals	77
Figure 4.12B: Household that missed meals the whole day	78
Figure 4.13: Household that cut the sizes of the children food	80
Figure 4.14: Children who did not have sufficient food	81
Figure 4.15: Household that had excess food	82
Figure 4.16: Average yield of different crops	84

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.1:	Zimbabwe's inflation rate since 1990	13
Table 1.2:	Zimbabwe's exchange rate against the USD	13
Table 2.1:	Profiles of land reforms in Southern Africa	22
Table 2.2:	Initiatives related to Food Security	34
Table 2.3:	Approaches to household food security	35
Table 4.1:	Disaggregated Sample Population	57
Table 4.2:	Members in different households	59
Table 4.3:	Households with members between the stated age groups	61
Table 4.4:	Level of education	62
Table 4.5:	Employment by sectors before the FTLRP	64
Table 4.6:	Harvested food and how long it lasted	67
Table 4.7:	Households that could not feed their households	72
Table 4.8:	Households that had to cut their food	74
Table 4.9:	Households that were hungry	75
Table 4.10:	Household with members that lost weight	75
Table 4.11:	Households with members that missed some meals	77
Table 4.12:	Households that cut sizes of children's food	81
Table 4.13:	Household that skipped meals	80
Table 4.14:	Household that had access food	81
Table 4.15;	Average yield of different crops	82

ACRONYMS

FLLRP	-	Fast Land Reform Programme
HFS	-	Household Food Security
ZANU-PF	-	Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front
DDF	-	District Development Fund
ZFSR	-	Zimbabwe Food Security Report
ZVAR	-	Zimbabwe Vulnerability Assessment Report
FAO	-	Food And Agricultural Organisation
AREX	-	Agricultural Research And Extension Service
NCA	-	National Constitutional Assembly
ISD	-	Institute Of Development Studies
TGLP	-	Tribal Grazing land Policy
PAPRM	-	Plan For The Absolute Poverty Reduction For Mozambique
MDC	-	Movement For Democratic Change

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APPROVAL FORM

The undersigned certify that they have read and recommended to the University Of South Africa for acceptance, a research project entitled Fast Tract Land Reform Programmes And Household Food Security: The Case Of Mutare district (Zimbabwe). Submitted by Mudefi R.A. in partial fulfillment of the requirements of the degree of Masters in Human Ecology

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DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to my wife Grace and daughters Tatenda and Tendai.

ABSTRACT

The research attempted to demystify the Zimbabwean land reform that was spear headed by war veterans' in Zimbabwe. This research investigated the impact of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) in 2000 on Household Food Security. It was generally assumed that the programme did not improve Household Food Security. To verify that assertion the research used questionnaires in a survey research design. The questionnaires were administered to 322 household heads that had been selected by the random stratified sampling method in Mutare District. The results established that Household Food Security in Mutare District improved after the implementation of the FTLRP. The national grain storage however was depleted because the new farmers reduced the production levels set by the former white farmers. The research therefore recommends an orderly and sustainable transition of Land Reform in future programmes to enhance national grain reserves. This also further improves the Household Food Security.

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction

This chapter begins by giving an overview of Land Reform and its relationship with Household Food Security. The chapter will proceed to give the background of the problem in this study. This was done through the history of Land Reform in the World, Africa, Zimbabwe and Mutare District. The models of Land Reform in Zimbabwe will be examined and its relevance put to scrutiny. The general challenges of the Land Reform will be examined. To get a better understanding of the research this chapter will give the objectives, significance and definitions of key terms in this study. The chapter will end with a compilation of the main ideas in the conclusion.

1.2. Overview of land reform and household food security

Ruedy (1992:7) defines Land Reform as the change in land tenure and/or land use. Land Reforms are usually carried out to bring about increase in Household Food Security, agricultural production and equitable apportionment of arable agricultural land. According to Tevera (2004:15), Land Reform dates back to the Middle Ages in Greece and Rome where land redistribution was characterized by massive and violent revolts from the ordinary peasants. Land was considered a source of wealth that ensured Household Food Security, so the struggle for land was a struggle for household survival. Ruedy (1992:38) asserts that John Ball and Wat Taylor in 1381 led struggles that ensured that the peasants had a fair share of England's land. This helped peasants get a means of production which they could use to improve their Household Food Security. Mpunga (2003:20) explains that Zimbabwe started its Land Reform Programme after independence in a bid to avail more arable land to the black majority who form more than three quarters of the population.

1.3. BACKGROUND

1.3.1. Land reform in Zimbabwe

Centre For Peace Initiatives (2005:47) asserts that talk of Land Reform by the black majority rulers in Zimbabwe officially began on the 10th of September 1979 at the Lancaster House in London. During this time the issue of land was important but was overshadowed by the biggest demand from the Zimbabwean contingent which was the demand for independence. According to Chitiyo (2000) there was a need to get the land from the whites to the majority black to fulfill the promises made to the masses by the guerilla fighters during the war.

Centre for Peace Initiatives (2005) explains that it was not very clear in 1999 if the reason for the Land Reform was still the same. It could have been a way by the ruling Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) to gain support before the 2000 elections. Chitiyo (2000:12) asserts that the Land Reform could have been to increase Household Food Security (HFS) among the indigenous people.

The war veterans could have played a role in this programme because during this time there was growing discontentment among them. Later on the government yielded to their demands by awarding them packages of Z\$50 000 each in 1999. Hamma (2003: 56) notes that this led to the speedy breaking of the colonial forms of landownership that had stretched from 1890 to 1999 a process later known as the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP). Around 1999 the Land Reform Programme was long overdue, the black majority had waited for a long time from 1979 during the Lancaster House Conference according to section V of the Independence Constitution, there was a constraint on the transfer of land in the first ten years of independence.

1.3.2. Land reform before Independence in Mutare district

Chitiyo (2000:20) asserts that the period before Zimbabwe's independence (before 1980) was characterized by the white settler's dominance in commercial farming activities in Mutare District. Chitiyo (2000:20) further explains that during this period the minority white settlers displaced the black majority from the fertile lands to the "reserves" which had infertile and rocky soils. Reserves were areas in the communal lands where black people were forcibly moved to during this displacement exercise. This resulted in the white settlers owning large expanses of fertile lands. Chitiyo (2000:35) gives some examples of farms in Mutare District where the white farmers settled during this time. They include Almer Farm in River Side, Lavestock Farm in Old Umtali, Riverside Farm in Odzi and Nyatsa Farm in Old Umtali. According to Bond (2001:45) earlier policies like the Land Apportionment Act of 1930 resulted in the displacement of people. Examples of areas where blacks were displaced include fertile and ever raining Vumba Mountains. These displaced people were forced in areas with poor soils like the communal lands of Chigodora, Gombakomba and Zimunya. Some people from the Old Umtali area were also displaced to Odzi, Watsomba and Marange communal areas (reserves).

1.3.3. Land reform in Mutare between 1980 and 1990

Hamma (2003:37) alludes to the fact that not much activity regarding Land Reform was evident between 1980 and 1990 in Mutares' land reform history. Household Food Security continued to be good during this time. At this time the Zimbabwean government was still bound by the Lancaster House Agreement of 1979. This agreement was that the Government of Zimbabwe would start an effective Land Reform Programme after ten years. Due to this restrictive measure the exchange of land in Mutare was fairly low with transactions being based on a 'willing seller willing buyer'. Hamma (2003:50) says that the Household Food Security in Mutare continued to be good because commercial farming was still very predominate. Even the peasant farmers could afford farm inputs for a good harvest. Most families eat

three meals a day and adequate grain storage was evident except in seasons where there was a drought.

1.3.4. Land reform in Mutare after 1990

Moyo (1995:37) asserts that Land Reform in Mutare was stepped up after 1990. During this time the economy of Zimbabwe was now evidently showing signs of distress. As a result a few more white farmers were willing to part away with some of their land. This was because the farming business was becoming more and more unprofitable for some farmers due to the poor prevailing economic climate. Cliffe (1995:7) alludes to the fact that the government started at this point to identify land suitable for Land Reform in response to the pressure being put by war veterans and the Mutare Community in general. Moyo (1995:47) says that land vetting in Mutare started around 1994. The following government departments and Ministries were involved in the exercise: Agricultural Research Extension Services (AREX), District Development Fund (DDF), the Rural State Land Office, Local Government, National Affairs and the Ministry of Lands and Rural Resettlement. Moyo (1995:47) says during this time agricultural production in the country started to fall. Families started to struggle with food. As mentioned earlier on the 1992 – 1993 drought aggravated the situation. Some families were moved away from the farms because the farms they worked for had been taken by new owners. The general perception that also triggered this movement is that white farmers paid better wages than new black farmers. Other families moved on to new farms as new land lords. Patterns in Household Food Security started to change.

After the tour of the farms in 1994, the Land Reform Committee recommended Land Reform on:

- Unutilized land
- Underutilized land
- Derelict land
- Land owned by absentee ownership and

- Land adjacent to communal areas.

It had been hoped that the Land Reform Programme will improve the Food Security in the country and consequently improve Household Food Security. The multi sectoral approach in the land redistribution did not help much to bring effectiveness into the exercise in accordance with The Constitution of Zimbabwe (1982) Section 5 and 12 of the Land Acquisition Act Chapter 20:10. Chitiyo (200:16) notes that the compensation exercise was supposed to be based on the value of the land and the improvements that the farmers had made. A Designation Valuation Officer was tasked to come up with the value of the farm. The farmer was allowed to object and give his recommendations. When an agreement was reached money was supposed to be paid by the government either as cash, installments or through bonds.

This system was well laid down on paper but in real practice most farmers were not compensated for their farm land. In Mutare very few farmers were compensated as described above. This is compared to other places like Makoni and Iomagundi districts more farmers were compensated. This further affected farming operations in the fields as the agricultural sector was now gripped with fear and uncertainty. Chitiyo (200:25) reports that other farms in 1999 were forcibly taken when plants were at the harvest stage. That negatively affected harvests in the 2000 – 2001 farming season. A corresponding drop in Household Food Security was noted. Though the magnitude was not known the signs were beginning to be evident.

1.3.5. The Land reform and sanctions in Mutare

Sithole (2007) notes that, the FTLRP is viewed as a controversial process by people in Mutare and world over. Many critics like the United States government condemned the process of the Land Reform. Sithole (2007) says with a view to force Zimbabwe to comply with the rule of law, United States (US) and many countries in the West imposed sanctions on Zimbabwe in 2001. This was later known as the Zimbabwe Democracy and Economic Recovery Act of 2001 (ZIDERA). US pledged to lift the

sanctions only when there is rule of law, respect for property ownership and an end to lawlessness. The Zimbabwean government continued to insist that the land revolution was necessitated by the need to equitably share land. This involved enforcing 1% of the population who were white to share the land resource with 95% of the black majority. The sanctions caused a drop in the economic productivity of the country. Though the sanctions are supposed to be “targeted” they have caused serious suffering to the ordinary Zimbabwean to date.

1.3.6. The Land reform and food security in Mutare

It is not clear what lead to the sharp drop in food reserves in years preceding the introduction of the FTLRP in 1999. Some critics say the chaotic manner in which the FTLRP was conducted played a significant role. Other people believe that the drought from 2002 to 2003 agricultural season could have worsened the situation. The Zimbabwean Food Security Report (2003), reports that the country experienced a severe crop failure in 2002 because of the early termination of the rains in February. This resulted in the reduction of yields to a 70% shortfall in production to meet the annual food requirement. This became the largest deficit in Mutare and the whole country since independence in 1980. The situation deteriorated into a famine and humanitarian disaster. The Zimbabwean Vulnerability Assessment Report of (2002) reported that 486 000 tonnes of food aid was needed to meet food requirements for 6 700 00 people who consisted 49% of the population. The rural areas were the hardest hit. The Food and Agricultural Organisation (2010) reports that, food insecurity persists in Zimbabwe to date. Other factors like the sanctions have worsened the plight of the majority of the citizens who continue to struggle to feed their families.

1.3.7. The Land reform and farm productivity in Mutare

The general declining farm productivity in Mutare District has lead to the general lowering of dietary standards in the District. The rural community has been hit hardest because they were not a priority in the distribution of seed and fertilizer. Keith (2005)

explains that the violence in the Mutare district farms in some instance put farming operations to a halt. The final stages of some crops were disturbed while in some places crops that were ready for harvest were either stolen from the field or destroyed by birds and animals. Keith (2005) reiterates that the displacement of farm labourers took its negative toll on farm productivity in Mutare. Due to the sanctions, there was critical shortage of fuel, inputs and traditional markets were blocked. All this caused a slump in farm productivity.

1.3.8. Household food security in Mutare before the 2000 land reform

Chitiyo (2000:15) describes the Household Food Security situation in Mutare before Independence (1975 – 1980) as fairly good (i.e. most families in Mutare could afford three balanced meals a day, except for the 1982 – 1983 and the 1992 – 1993 drought years. People in Mutare at this time generally had large families sometimes of up to ten children. Families were generally peasants and at times had enough to sell to meet other expenses like school fees and groceries. Most families had animals like cattle, goats and sheep. This further enhanced the Household Food Security. Chitiyo (2000:15) explains that the animals provided a good source of protein for the family. Pastures were abundant so the animals continued to multiply. Grain storage facilities were fairly standard. Peasants in Mutare could store grain for a period of up to three years. Diseases and pest were minimal. Chitiyo (2000:15) asserts that when the settlers took over the farms before independence, production of grain improved because of the mechanization of agriculture in the commercial farms. More grain was produced to feed the country and excess grain was left for years of droughts. Production among villagers plummeted because they had been displaced from their fertile land. At this time Zimbabwe had the post of Food Security in the Southern African Development Community (SADC). This only mirrors the general picture of Household Food Security in Mutare during the history of Zimbabwe's Land Reform. During this time the rains were more consistent and so agricultural output was very high.

1.4.0. TYPES OF LAND REFORM MODELS IN MUTARE

Moyo (1995:13) explains that Land Reform in Mutare was conducted under the following models:

1.4.1. Model A (villages)

In this model people were given about 5 hectares of land to farm. They however had a common grazing land which was used by the whole community. This model was less demanding as it required a minimum capacity of effort because the land size was not very large. Under this model people lived like a community where houses, grazing land and field are located in the same locality.

1.4.2. Model A2 (the commercial farming scheme)

This model was designed to empower the black people and increase their participation in commercial farming. This area had been previously dominated by white farmers. The farms in this model were much bigger so only people who were capable of such farm operations were given the land. In practice this was not the case on the ground any person who had a huge political muscle even without the capacity took over the farms, this resulted in a drop in productivity.

1.4.3. The Fast Track Land Reform Programme in Mutare

Sithole (2007:43) alludes to the point that as from 1999 the Land Reform Programme in Mutare took a more violent turn. The programme became much politicised and most people who were aligned to the ruling party blamed the white farmers for advocating for a no vote of the new constitution in the 2000 referendum. The proposed new constitution was not acceptable to the ruling party. Sithole (2007:45)

says the war veterans hit back by invading farms. At this stage production in most farms slumped. Harvests dropped and Household Food Security became a concern.

Sithole (2007:54) explains that about 17 farms were taken during the farm invasions in Mutare by December 2000. In the whole province of Manicaland which has 744 farms totaling 577 512 hectares, 243 farms were taken forcibly for Land Reform. These 243 farms have 189 293 hectares.

Bond (2001:7) asserts that the Land Reform Programme in Mutare followed the general pattern of the whole country during this time. The programme was very hurried and as a result the coordination posed some difficulties to the responsible government officials. Consequently the programme faced many challenges some of which are described below.

1.5.0. CHALLENGES OF THE FTLRP IN MUTARE

Sithole (2007:66) explains some of the challenges of the FTLRP as follows:

1.5.1. Budgetary constraints

Progress in the smooth takeover of the farms was mainly hampered by lack of financial resources. That meant the proper procedures of compensating farmers who had their land taken could not be followed. The whole planning process which required personnel could not be speedily executed because no resources were there for that process. Consequently people invaded farms and divided farms as they pleased. This haphazard manner also resulted in the surge of violence which further stifled farm productivity. There were also no resources to build infrastructure like schools, toilets, clinics and even houses in most cases. Another challenge was that most black farmers who moved into A2 Model farms did not have the capacity and the resources to continue with the farming operations left by white farmers.

1.5.2. Inflationary pressures

Due to the mounting economic sanctions, Zimbabwe experienced a hyperinflationary economic environment between 2000 and 2008. During this time no economic activity could be successfully planned and executed. The same applied to the process of Land Reform and farming in general. Prices of basic commodities changed several times in a day. This had a negative effect on farming. Diesel, petrol, farm equipment and inputs became very scarce.

1.5.3. Transport and fuel

The government did not have adequate transport facilities to go to different places to coordinate the Land Reform in Zimbabwe. This resulted in the poor organisation of the whole programme. In some places violence broke out because villagers took over the programme without the guidance of government land officers. Other places had vehicles for the programme but the vehicles did not have any fuel. During the FTLRP the country faced serious fuel challenges because most countries which disapproved the process of Land Reform started cutting their fuel supplies to Zimbabwe. As a result the country had very inadequate fuel supplies to facilitate the Land Reform Programme.

1.5.4. Political Interference

The Land Reform Programme was not taken as a developmental tool in Zimbabwe. Instead it was taken as a political campaign strategy where different political leaders were using this issue to further their political interests. Because of this the masses were used by the leaders to start up violence which led to some people losing their lives.

1.6.0. The land audit in Mutare

Sithole (2007:32) asserts that the land Audit was conducted in 2006 in Mutare. This exercise was done so that the government would have an accurate assessment of the Land Reform situation in Mutare. The Land Reform Audit was carried out mainly using a questionnaire which was completed with the assistance of enumerators from the Ministry of Agriculture through the Department of Agricultural Research and Extension Services (AREX).

1.6.1. The land audit team checklist

Sithole (2007:38) says the Land Audit team was looking at the following attributes during their land audit visit in Mutare:

- The number of farms with owners not on the property.
- The double allocation of farms.
- Multiple farm ownership.
- Farm utilization in terms of crops and Livestock production.
- Farm structures and equipment found on the property.
- Improvements made of the farm
- The number of farms taken over by new owners since independence.

1.6.2 The land audit report for Mutare district

Sithole (2007:54) gives the following as the main points raised in the land audit report for Mutare District.

1.6.3. Drought power

The team found that in Mutare only 17% of the beneficiaries of the Land Reform Programme had their own tractors whilst the rest of the people relied on hiring other people's tractors, cattle and donkeys.

1.6.4. Disputes

Many disputes were unveiled between the beneficiaries of the Land Reform Programme and the white farmers. Most of the disputes related to boundaries and issues around co-existence

1.6.5. Subletting

Some new farmers were subletting their farms. Such farmers were warned to stop the practice. Where farmers did not comply with the directive offer letters were withdrawn and the farms given to other people.

1.6.6. Poaching and deforestation

The coexistence of people and animals created problems. Most of the environmentally unfriendly practices included poaching, snaring, cutting down trees and veldt fires in wildlife farms were rampant.

1.7.0. FACTORS THAT AFFECTED LAND REFORM IN MUTARE

1.7.1. The Land reform, changing currencies and the inflation rate

Blackie (2008:23) says that after Zimbabwe's independence in 1980 the currency of the Reserve Bank was much stronger than the United States Dollar. (ZWD 1 = USD 1.47). Just after the Land Reform the country started to experience an exponential rise in inflation rates. Blackie (2008) states that by 26 July 2006 the parallel market value of the Zimbabwean dollar fell to one million to the British pound. Table 1.1 and Table 1.2 below show the transition of the inflation and exchange rates of Zimbabwe

since independence. During the hyperinflationary period of 2008 to 2009 the Zimbabwean dollar changed its currencies four times to different currencies whose name was not given. It was loosely referred to as the bearer checks. In 2009 the country moved to the multiple currency regime. During this period the Pula, Rand and the United States Dollar began to be accepted as the official currencies. During this changeover the general public just like the farmers lost a lot of savings and investments. The inadequate notice resulted in people losing millions worth of Zimbabwean dollars in the banks

Table 1.1: Zimbabwe’s inflation rate since 1980 Blackie (2008:26)

DATE	RATE	DATE	RATE	DATE	RATE	DATE	RATE	DATE	RATE
1980	7%	1981	14%	1982	15%	1983	19%	1984	10%
1986	15%	1987	10%	1988	8%	1989	14%	1990	17%
1992	40%	1993	20%	1994	25%	1995	28%	1996	16%
1998	48%	1999	56.9%	2000	55.22%	2001	112.1%	2002	198.93%
2004	132.75%	2005	585.84%	2006	1,281.11%	2007	66,212.3%	2008	231,150,888.87% (July)

Table 1.2: Zimbabwe’s exchange rate against the USD Blackie (2008:26)



1.7.2. The Land reform and political violence

Sithole (2007) asserts that during the peak of the farm invasions in 2000 there was a surge in political violence. The white farmers were force marched out of their land and some of those who resisted were injured or lost their lives. Property was looted and animals were slaughtered at will. Farm labourers were also forced out of the farms. The police did very little to stop the violence. During this time there were a lot of interruptions in farming operations. The violence was mainly perpetrated by the war veterans who lead the farm invasions. Sithole (2007) says that the Movement for Democratic Change supporters who also tried to sympathise with this process became victims. The whole country experienced a difficult time as most people lost their homes and their livelihoods. The international media found it difficult to cover the incidents as they were barred because of their alleged biased reporting.

1.7.3. The Land Reform and the call for a new constitution

The Zimbabwe Human Rights Forum (2010) reports that the pressure for a new constitution was made ever since the early 90's by groups like the National Constitutional Assembly whose leader is Lovemore Madhuku. The process was formalised by the Zimbabwean Government with the help of donors in 2010. A lot of intimidation and violence were associated with the constitutional outreaches. The Newsday (13 August 2010) reports that the constitution has been amended in several areas ever since independence to suit the interest of the government's desire to acquire land under the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP). This has been a cause for many disputes some of which have spilled into the SADC tribunal. The tensions from the current constitutional outreaches has been politicised around the fight for land.

1.7.4. The land reform and elections in Zimbabwe

Sithole (2007) asserts that the FTLRP started towards the elections of 2000. The ruling party wanted to fulfill the promises of the armed struggle just before the elections to gain more support from the masses that were now rearing from an underperforming economy. Zimbabwe is currently preparing for the 2011 elections. Again just like the constitutional outreach programmes the call for elections has been politicised against the fight for control of the land. The ruling party's fight in the next year's election is the control of the land. There is a great fear and suspicion that if any opposition wins the elections land might be returned to the white minority.

1.8.0. Statement of the problem

The research seeks to establish the impact of Fast Tract Land Reform Programmes on Household Food Security using the case of Mutare District, (Zimbabwe)

1.8.1. Objectives of the study

The objectives of this study were to:

- document the HFS status in Mutare District before the FTRP.
- find out the HFS in Mutare District after the FTLRP and
- bring out the impact of the FTRP on HFS in Mutare District .

1.8.2. Research questions/ sub – problem

The following are the research questions used in this research:

- What was the HFS status in Mutare District before the FTRP?
- What was the HFS in Mutare District just after the FTLRP? and
- What is the impact of the FTRP on HFS in Mutare District?

1.8.3. Significance of the study

This study is important because it will help achieve the following in the field of Food Security in Mutare District Zimbabwe.

- The study will give a general overview of Land Reform and Food Security in Mutare district and other countries so that a comparison may be made. This will assist policy makers to make an assessment of how the process in Zimbabwe proceeded compared to other countries.
- The study will show the impact of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme On Household Food Security in Mutare District. An analysis of the details of Household Food Security will be given to show the benefits and shortfalls of the FTLRP.
- The research will also give a starting point of an evaluation of the FTLRP with a view of informing future programmes that seek to address land and HFS disparities. The research may be used as a policy advocacy tool to enhance transparency and effectiveness of such programmes in future.
- The study will be a guide on how future Land Reform Programmes can increase HFS in Mutare other parts of Zimbabwe and Africa. The study will make recommendation on how to reduce the weaknesses and enhance the strength of the FTLRP.

1.8.4. Delimitation

This research excludes all the other Provinces and Districts in Manicaland where the FTLRP was also conducted.

1.8.5. Limitations of the study

The study will be limited to the impact of HFS in Mutare District, Manicaland Province of Zimbabwe and the results may not necessarily be applicable elsewhere.

1.8.6. Definitions of terms

The following terms are defined according to what they mean in the proposed research.

- **Land reform** - is the change in land tenure and/or landuse. This is normally instituted to empower the landless tenants with land for farming. Land Reform may lead to an increase in crop yields thus resulting in economic development.
- **Fast track** – is the speedy manner in which the Zimbabwean Land Reform was conducted. It is usually a short cut of doing Land Reform and is associated with flaws.
- **Fast Track Land Reform** - used to refer to the Zimbabwean Land Reform Programme of 2000 which was speedily executed.
- **Household** - all the people living together as a group or family in a house.
- **Food security** – the amount of food that can be accessed and stored to meet the requirements of a group of people or family living together.
- **Household food security** - the amount of food that can be accessed by a family to meet its day to day needs.
- **War veterans** - these are the men and women who fought the liberation struggle of Zimbabwe. They played a great role in the FTLRP.
- **Tenants** - a person who farms on a piece of land that does not belong to them with the agreement that they pay rent in cash or harvest after an agreed period of time.

- **Land tenure** - The title by which land is owned. This normally gives the ownership under which that land is owned.
- **Food availability** - the extent to which affordable food is readily accessible for a group of people, family, community or nation.
- **Colonial regime** - these are the settler white people who colonised Zimbabwe.
- **Liberation struggles** – these are wars that were fought to give political independence and economical empowerment which includes land to Zimbabwe.
- **Reserves** – infertile land reserved for the black majority during the colonial era.

1.9.0. Conclusion

Chapter one has showed clearly that the main concern in this research is the study of the impact of the FTLRP. The study area will be Mutare District of Manicaland Province in Zimbabwe. The chapter has explored the historical background to Land Reform in general. Chapter two will now look at the literature review on Land Reform and HFS

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

The previous chapter (Chapter 1) gave the problem and background of this research. Chapter two will begin by giving an overview of the global review on Land Reform. Thereafter the review will be narrowed to countries in Southern Africa, these include Botswana, Mozambique, South Africa, Malawi and Zambia. The chapter will proceed to define the major objectives of Land Reform Programmes. The different types of Land Reform Programmes will be explored, including how they influence Household Food Security. Several definitions of Household Food Security will be explored. Under Household Food Security the key characteristics of Household Food Security will be discussed. The Chapter will also explain how sustainability, resilience and sensitivity relate to Household Food Security. Finally the chapter will describe how Household Security can be measured using its indicators.

2.2. The global review on Land Reform

Harvey (2004:65) says that the struggle for land is global because land forms the basis of wealth in the home. Different forms and models of Land Reform have been instituted world over as people try to control wealth and gain political favours. Harvey (2004:65) asserts that most of the Land Reforms are a change of ownership from the former colonial masters to the peasants. Harvey (2004:65) explains that Land Reform is an attempt to improve the Household Food Security (HFS) of the tenants or the indigenous people. Mutangadura (2000:93) adds that the other types of Land Reforms include change of farming methods and change of crop varieties which results in high yields thus increase Household Food Security.



Figure 2.1: A typical field that changed hands during a land reform programme in Marondera

Borg (1993:68) states that some of the countries that went through Land Reform Programmes (LRP) include Japan, Taiwan and South Korea. Japan's LRP was largely sponsored by foreign donors and is rated as one of the most successful in the world. Seale (1988:134) found out that the main objectives of the Japan LRP were to sustain political order, improve the standards of living of the ordinary citizens and then to foster some form of economic development. This reform was meant to empower the families so that they improve their Household Food Security (HFS). Seale (1988:134) noted that Japan's Land Reform started off with tenants renting pieces of land and the second phase saw efforts in restricting renting of peasants. Later on the government initiated the contract for lease systems. Seale (1998:135) states that the last phase of Japan's LRP saw the tenants being given land so that they become owners of their own land. This greatly improved their HFS because they took all the food and profits they got from their land.

Mpunga (2003:88) reports that in Taiwan the LRP occurred between 1949 and 1954. The reform occurred basically in three phases. The first phase included campaigning down the system where land was rented to tenants for a cost which sometimes exceeded 70% of their harvest. This meant that families were still low on HFS because most of the food went to the landlords. Strauss (1995:46) also comments that in the second phase regulations were revised, rent was now reduced to about 37% of the harvests. In the last phase of this LRP the government bought most of the land only to resell it to the poor tenants at affordable prices and fair terms of payments. Prosser (1998:15) propounds that South Korea followed almost the same pattern with Taiwan where the government fought the tenancy system up to a point where many tenants were now land owners. South Korea also released pressure of people on the rural land by initiating industries in rural areas.

2.3. Land reform and household food security in Southern Africa

Mpunga (2003:78) asserts that in Africa most LRP's were guided by the quest to remove the colonial regimes from majority ownership of land. Colonial families were very secure on HFS while most black families struggled to give their families the three traditional meals a day. Mpunga (2003:78) concurs with Tevera (2006:72) in that most liberation struggles were guided by the need for land ownership. This included owning a farm with title deeds. Some Land Reforms were not completed till years after independence. This is the case with Zimbabwe and South Africa. Mpunga (2003:78) states that in South Africa land was one of the promises of the African National Congress (ANC) when it came to power in 1994. After Independence when the political leaders initiated the LRP it started off on a willing buyer willing seller.

Tevera (2006:56) explains that in 2006 a decision was made by government to start expropriating land with full compensation. According to Tevera (2006:72) in South Africa the Land Reform process has not yet fully addressed the demands of the

people of South Africa. Table 2.1 below shows some of the Land Reforms in Southern Africa.

Table 2.1: Moyo (1999:33) Profiles of Land Reforms in Southern Africa

Country	Type of Reform	Type of problem	Length of Reform	Source of reform	Type of land acquisition	Role of state/Market
Zimbabwe	Redistribution	Settler alienation, black capitalists	18 years	Political pressure/ Squatting	State market purchases & state compulsory purchases	State driven
Namibia	Redistribution	Settler alienation	9 years	Political pressure/ Squatting	State market purchases	State driven
South Africa	Restitution/ Redistribution	Settler alienation	4 years	Political pressure/ Squatting	State compensation for restitution; State grants	State and community
Mozambique	Tenure/ Redistribution	Settler/state alienation	5 years	Post-war crisis	Expropriation	–
Malawi	Estates transition	State/estates	2 years	Social/ Political pressure	Not yet Community	Community demands

2.3.1. Land reform and household food security in Botswana

Botswana’s land in the rural areas is governed under the Tribal Trust Land Act of 1968. Most of the areas are managed by Land Boards whose duties is to allocate, register, plan, and monitor the use of the land. Much of Botswana’s 600 370 square kilometres is arid and semi arid. Only 6% of this land can be used successfully for meaningful agriculture. For that reason 80% of Botswana’s people depend on livestock farming. The Institute of Development Studies (IDS) (2006:15) notes that most of the Land Reform in Botswana was noted during the Colonial Era.

The most notably Land Reform conducted was between 1980 and 1990. IDS (2006:5) write that unlike other countries Land Reform was not done to redistribute the land but to increase agricultural productivity and conserve range land resources. This was the change of land use from the range land policy (cattle post system) to the commercial ranches. IDS (2006) explain that this programme included destroying the traditional forms of land ownership where the rural populace especially the San or Bushmen were allowed to move around with their livestock in search of better pastures. The new programme of the commercial ranches which had donor support included fencing some of the open range lands to give way to the commercial ranches. This programme left out the rural people because they had few livestock and they could not afford the cost of the infrastructure required for commercial ranching. Though the Tribal Grazing Land Policy (TGLP) of 1975 had empowered the ordinary people the new policy disempowered them.

Tembo (2007:7) asserts that the new forms of land ownership did not seem to benefit the ordinary citizens but instead benefited the few elite who were connected to people in government. Tembo (2007) notes that though the Commercial ranches form of land ownership helped Botswana to get foreign currency it did very little to improve Household Food Security among the ordinary poor. The elite who had a good HFS benefited by getting more wealth which they invested in other sectors of the economy.

Watson (2005:15) propounds that during the Open Range Land farming livestock involved moving from place to place in search of pastures. There was coexistence between the San and the wild animals. Though the San sometimes hunted the wild animals they mainly depended on their livestock for meat, milk and hides. This improved their HFS. Watson (2005:15) states that the government abolished this system because it led to overgrazing of the pastures consequently resulting in degradation of the land. Under the Commercial Ranches all wild animals were excluded, and fences were made to prevent the livestock for the Bushmen from moving from different places in search of pastures. Watson (2005:15) explains that

this reduced their herds hence a reduction in HFS. The communal lands were greatly reduced thus the pressure on the livestock was great.

2.3.2. Land reform and household food security in Mozambique

Norfolk (2009:9) says that Land Reform that occurred in the 90s was meant to reduce the level of poverty hence HFS in Mozambique. Norfolk (2009:9) asserts that the Plan for the Absolute Reduction of Poverty for Mozambique (PAPRM) (2001 - 2005) was set by Mozambique to reduce household poverty (HFS) through empowering the people. This programme gave land to peasants to farm.



Figure 2.2: USAID (2008:15) Communal farming in the rural areas

Figure 2.2 above shows a peasant with his maize crop from the land acquired through the PAPRM programme. Norfolk (2009:12) says that Land Reform in Mozambique took three forms

- i) The strengthening of land tenure for family sector producers – this was meant to ensure that the majority in the communal areas had right to their land. This would help them to invest in their land since most of their livelihoods were based on the exploration of natural resources,

ii) Encouraging investment in the rural economy through the granting of private land concessions – this system allowed some rural people to own large pieces of land which they could invest in meaningful and increased agricultural production. This was also meant to stimulate employment and HFS among the rural community. One of the motives from Government was to get taxes through these lands.

iii) Attracting foreign investment on land – the government wanted to promote large foreign investment in areas adjacent to rural communities. This would also increase partnership between the foreign investors and rural communities thus stimulating production which had a positive effect on HFS for the rural people.

Norfolk (2009:12) notes that Land Reform in Northern Mozambique mainly took the form of land concessions. Of the 10, 5 million hectares, 6 million was arable. By 1987, 2 449 land concession applications had been made under the regulation of 1987. Norfolk (2009:12) notes that the main challenge faced under this system was that after the 1994 elections people who had been displaced by the Mozambique National Resistance Army (RENAMO) and the Liberation Front of Mozambique (FRELIMO) political entities returned only to find their land had been given to other people with land concessions.

This caused a lot of tensions in the communal areas and this resulted in the cancellation of 1200 land concession applications (3 000 000 hectares). This was quite a largely consultative process with 137 public consultative meetings being held in the province. Norfolk (2009:12) writes that Land Reform in Mozambique was not meant to switch resources but to protect the rights of customary occupiers on communal land.

2.3.3. Land reform and household food security in South Africa

The South African Constitution (1996) makes the issue of land reform very clear. It states that according to Sections 25 (5 - 7),

"The state must take reasonable legislative and other measures, within its available resources, to foster conditions which enable citizens to gain access to land on an equitable basis; A person or community whose tenure of land is legally insecure as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either a tenure which is legally secure or a comparable redress; and a person or community disposed of property after 19 June 1913 as a result of past racially discriminatory laws or practices is entitled, to the extent provided by an Act of Parliament, either to restitution of that property or to equitable redress."

The clear outline of the constitution forms the basis of the South African Land Reform. Lahiff (2003:39) notes that the first democratically elected government inherited one of the world's most racially skewed land distribution. Lahiff (2003:39) says approximately 82 million hectares which was divided into 60 000 farm units was in white ownership while over 13 million people owned 13% of the country's arable land. To date the historical imbalances in Land reform have not been adequately addressed. The government of South Africa believes in the use of a free market mechanism, a highly controlled public spending and minimal intervention in the economy (market based, demand approach). Norfolk (2009:20) says that this has not helped much to address the issue of land ownership disparities.

Norfolk (2009:15) states that the slow pace of Land Reform in South Africa and the Fast Track Land Reform in Zimbabwe has resulted in mounting pressure among the ordinary citizens and pressure groups like the Landless People's Movement of South Africa (LPM). Norfolk (2009:18) says a lot of progress has been made on restitution

on Land Rights according to Act 22 of 1994. This made provisions of rights to land for people or community disposed of land under the racially based discriminatory legislation after 19 June 1913. A Restitution Commission and a special Lands Court with powers equivalent to the High Court was set. Lahiff (2003:45) states that the deadline for the restitution application was 31 December 1998. During this period 68 878 claims were made from individuals, households and communities.

By March 2002, 29 877 claims had been settled representing 56 245 households. That covered a total of 427 337 hectares with a total cost of R15 Billion. The total financial compensation paid out was R938 million. Lahiff (2003:46) says that the progress in the rural areas was very slow and some critics' questioned whether the government still has adequate capacity to deal with the disparities and queries of people currently settled in the rural areas.

Norfolk (2009:15) found out that the Land Reform in South Africa was not really meant to redistribute land but was meant to compensate the colonial ills. All land transactions were on a willing buyer willing seller. The process was made possible by the Settlement Land Acquisition Grant (SLAG). Norfolk (2009:32) notes that the South African Land Reform was mainly criticised for its failure to redress issues of livelihoods, alleviation of poverty, Household Food Security and development in the rural areas. The complex government structures made the process more difficult.

2.3.4. Land Reform and Household Food Security in Malawi

Watson (2005:15) states that Malawi was under the British colonial rule for 73 years (1891–1964). During this time the white settler farmers took most of the fertile land in Malawi. This left the black majority an average 0.5 hectares per person for farming. This was largely inadequate. This led to the first government initiative on Land Reform. Watson (2005) says in 1995 the Presidential Commission of Inquiry into Land Policy Reform was commissioned. The policy sought to strengthen Customary Land Rights and give the traditional leaders adequate authority to manage and administer land in their jurisdiction. The policy explored ways of increasing the

hectares owned by individual households so as to improve their economic security and Household Food Security. The Malawi National Land Policy (MNLP) also sought to protect household land from arbitrary conversion to public or private land. Watson (2005) also adds that the MNLP also sought to protect the rural community from losing their land.

Lahiff (2003:45) says the policy ensured that customary land holders register their land as private customary estates. This assisted them in preserving the advantages of customary ownership while ensuring security of tenure. Once this registration was complete the owner had full legal status of the land and the land could now be leased or used as security to get loans from the banks. Lahiff (2003:47) proceeds to explain another attempt by the World Bank to address the land imbalance. This programme was known as the Community Based Rural Land Distribution Project (CBRLDP). The programme which was conducted in Thydo, Mulanje, Machinga and Mangochi was launched in 2004. Lahiff (2003:40) says the project sought to increase land ownership and household incomes of about 15 000 families. This programme wanted to stimulate household economic growth and thus reducing poverty. Though this programme was successful in addressing the colonial land policy before independence but anxiety rose among the new settlers on the issue of land rights. Lahiff (2003:40) says that the programme increased household food production from an average yield of 219 kilograms of maize to 1411 kilograms of maize.

Norfolk (2009:16) explains that the Presidential Commission and the CBRLRP created a few challenges in Malawi. There were a lot of overlaps of agricultural, settlement, infrastructure and private lands. This caused a number of disputes. There was also corruption among the land officers and in some places people who were not related to lineage leadership members were evicted. This was in contradiction to Article 28 of the Land Policy which states that every person shall be able to acquire property alone or in association with others and no person shall be arbitrary deprived of property.

2.3.5. Land reform and household food security in Zambia

Lahiff (2003:34) describes the Zambian rural people as being generally poor because most of them farm between 2 to 3 hectares. The imbalance in Zambia's land distribution was caused by the British colonial rule that left the general populace with hardly adequate land for their Household Food Security. Mbinji (2008:15) points out that the Zambian post independence Land Reforms have mainly been focused on land repossession from absentee landlords. Mbinji (2008:15) says that in 1993 the state sought to convert the colonial title which emanated from the Act of 1975. The government started this reform to improve the land administration systems, regulate and liberalizing land markets. This later improved the way in which land disputes were resolved. Mbinji (2008: 24) gives some of the advantages of the new systems as follows:

- i) Reducing the land tenure insecurity in both the customary and state land.
- ii) Increase equitable access to ownership of and control of land resources.
- iii) Convert more customary land to state land to address increasing demand.
- iv) To improve Household Food Security.
- v) Liberalise the economy to attract local and foreign investment.

Mbinji (2008:24) says an earlier attempt to privatise the land and create land markets was rejected in 1995. The government however passed the bill into law but failed to practically implement the new law. The new Land Policy of 2000 was passed after wide consultations and hence helped to resolve the land imbalance. The new policy of 2000 sought to change the titling of the land and convert some of the customary land into state owned land (94% of the land in Zambia is under customary tenure). Mbinji (2008:24) says this move was meant to encourage investment, development and production through access to land and government incentives. This policy also informed by the World Bank Country Assistance

Strategy (CAS). Lahiff (2003) found out that most studies had linked Zambia's poverty to lack of access to adequate land and investment of the land. This consequently resulted in low productivity.

Lahiff (2003:14) says the new land policy included adjusting land rates, improving revenue collection, allocation of at least 30% of the land to women, ethnic minority groups and the vulnerable groups. This was also accomplished by strengthening the Land tribunal. The whole process came out of a wide consultation.

2.4. Objectives of land reform programmes

Moyo (2000:54) explains that there are various reasons why Land Reform is conducted in many countries. Some Land Reforms are conducted in response to external or internal social, economic or political pressure. For example, Moyo (2005:11) explains that in Zimbabwe the LRP was influenced by the war veterans and the Zimbabwe African National Union-Patriotic Front (ZANU-PF) who wanted to provide land for the people and at the same time fulfil the promises of the liberation struggle to the people. At this time the MDC had campaigned against the constitutional referendum in 2000 which was believed to give more power to ZANU-PF and President Robert Mugabe. Mutangadura (2000:58) highlights that most Land Reforms are done to fight imperialism. Imperialism usually manifest itself as many colonial settlers who have a lot of land that they exploit for huge profits while the local people live in poverty. Mutangadura (2000:58) explains that in such cases the governments try to transfer land to the peasants as a way of empowering the local people.

Land Reform is a method of wealth transfer in a bid to improve the Household Food Security situation in local communities. Seale (1988:23) also agrees that reforms may be done to increase the agricultural output or to change to indigenous crops that are more drought resistant. In most countries Land Reform helps to improve the Household Food Security (HFS) situation and to exercise post independence democracy. Seale (1988:23) comments that it is also true that most countries may

use certain acceptable reasons for Land Reform to get support from local peasants or the international community when in actual fact they have other agendas

2.5. Types of Land Reform intervention programmes

Tevera (2004:67) explains some of the forms in which Land Reform can take. The first one is change of tenure. This happens when the title by which the land is owned is changed. The land may still be owned by the same owner or given to another owner. Moyo (2005:88) asserts that another type of Land Reform is land redistribution. This is when land is acquired so that it is given to other people who do not have land. Tevera (2004:67) explains the other forms of Land Reform as, change of scale or change of operation. In this type production many move from extensive farming to intensive farming. This normally happens under the same owner. Finally Tevera (2004:67) explains that there is another Land Reform type where just the pattern of cultivation may change. This is done to improve agricultural yields just like the scale of operation Land Reform.

Adams (1995:5) identifies four types of land reform interventions, they are as follows:

i) Land tenure reform

This type of Land Reform occurs when there is need to correct abnormalities observed in the ownership of land. Adams (1995:5) explains that some disparities arise from the colonial era. To address this injustice land is taken from people with vast areas and then property rights given to the majority without land. This can also be enforced or established by statutory committees or land boards who supervise the use of private or common property rights. The land boards will assist in adjusting the terms of contracts between landlords and tenants.

ii) External Inducement

These are market based incentives given out by government to promote change of property rights. Adams (1995:7) says that the incentives may be given for social

or economic reasons which subsequently lead to the restructuring of property rights or creations of new ones altogether. External inducement includes the distribution of public lands, state expenditure on land reclamation and subsequent allotment of private lands. Another example includes support to institutions to administer the necessary land acquisition and distribution mechanism.

iii) External controls

Adams (1995:7) asserts that external controls are restrictions imposed on property rights (i.e. non market measures) like the nationalization, collectivization, restitution, redistribution policies which involves expropriation of land with or without compensation. This can happen on grounds of excessive land sizes, underutilization of land, and ownership by absentee landlords. Tevera (2004:67) says that they are also other external controls which may prevent land fragmentation below certain land sizes.

iv) Confirmation of title

Tevera (2004:67) asserts that confirmation of title assists in reaffirming land rights in the private and public community. This will assist in reducing conflict and doubts about property rights. Adams (1995:7) says when this is done this will set in motion opportunities for development on the land. When there is conflict on property rights this disrupts operations and development of a farm. So with confirmation of title this puts to rest all uncertainty as to land ownership.

2.6. Considerations before implementing a land reform programme

Chitiyo (2000:101) explains that for a Land Reform Programme to be successful it should meet the intended targets. These targets are normally to increase food production so that the country and its people have enough to eat and sell for subsistence (HFS). Chitiyo (2000:101) then suggests some points that should be noted before any Land Reform Programme is conducted. The points are as follows:

- the programme should be clear on which part of the country is going to be targeted and who is going to benefit,
- there should be a clear role for the government, political parties and local leadership,
- it should be clear how much land is available for reform, how much each recipient will receive and the nature of the land tenure system to be applied.
- the programme should find an acceptable strategy for selecting such land for reform. The government should establish the cost of the whole process and see if they can afford it with or without donor support,
- the government should establish the duration of the programme. This will help to make considerations for the environmental, social and economic impact of this programme and
- its effect on Household Food Security.

Chitiyo (2000:101) explains that these considerations will help establish if the Land Reform Programme will improve the state of the HFS or food reserves in the country. Below is the initiatives that were related to food security between 1949 to 1990.

2.7.0. Food security

Table 2.2: Food security initiatives Frankernberger (1991:7) Food security.

Initiatives related to food security (1949 – 1990)		
1943	-	Hot Springs Conference on Food and Agriculture.
1945	-	FAO established.
1946	-	UNICEF established.
1948	-	Universal declaration of Human Rights.
1963	-	World Food Programme established.
1966	-	International Convention on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights.
1967	-	First Food Aid Convention.
1974	-	World Food Conference: Universal Declaration on the Eradication of Hunger and malnutrition. World Food Council Established. FAO: Committee on World Food Security Established.
1975	-	FAO Global information and Early Warning Systems (GIEWS) established. International Emergence Food Reserve (IEFR)
1976	-	Club du Sahel Established in OECD.
1978	-	FAO Regional Food Plan for Africa.
1980	-	OAU Lagos Plan Of Action.
1981	-	European Community “Plan of action to combat hunger in the world” and Initiation of food strategies in four countries.
1983	-	Broadened concept of food security adopted by FAO.
1984	-	Lome III convention gives central place to food security.
1985	-	USAID Famine Early Warning System (FEWS) established World Food Security Compact. (FAO).
1987	-	Mandate of FAO food security assistance service broadened to focus More on national policy.
1988	-	World Bank Task force report “The challenge of hunger in Africa: a call to Action and initiation of World Bank food security studies in Africa”
1989	-	Convention on the Rights of the child adopted by the General Assemble of United Nations. Initiation of the FAO food security planning in four African Countries. Bellagic Declaration: Ending half of the world’s hunger in 2000. WFC Cairo declaration and Programme of cooperative action.
1990	-	Food Aid Charter for the countries in the Sahel. World Summit For Children (UNICEF)

There have been a lot of developments regarding Food Security in the world. Table 2.4 above shows these developments from 1943 to 1990.

FAO (2008:3) says Food Security is a situation which exists when,

“... all people at all times have physical and economic access to safe and nutritious food that meets their dietary needs and food preferences for an active and healthy life.....”

Table 2.3 below differentiates the two main approaches to HFS.

Table 2.3: Frankernberger (1991:32) Two approaches to household food security

Difference between a Narrow “Food First” Approach and a Wider “Sustainable Livelihood” to Household Food Security.		
Livelihood	Food First Approach	Sustainable livelihood Approach
Objective	Access to food	Secure and sustainable livelihood
Point of departure	Failure to subsist	Success in feeding and living
Priorities	Food at the top of needs	Food part of the jigsaw fit
Time preference	Food needs met first	Food given to met livelihood needs
Entitlement	Narrow entitlement	Broad entitlement base
Vulnerability	Lack or want of food	Defenseless, exposure to risk
Security	Adequate food	Opposite of vulnerability is security
Vulnerable groups	Based on medical needs	Based on economic needs
Copying strategies	To meet immediate needs	To preserve livelihoods
Measuring	Present consumption	Livelihood intensity
Link to Food Security	Degrade Environment	Preserve Environment

From the above definition of Food Security Frankernberger (1991:32) comes up with two approaches to HFS. These are the food first approach or the sustainable livelihood approach. The two approaches are explained in figure 2.4 above. The FAO (2008:3) also picks out four main elements of food security from this definition and these are as follows:

i) The physical availability of food

Availability of food includes the supply of food. This is determined by the level of food production of a community, the level of reserves and the ability of the community to trade adequate food for its people. The broader availability of food in a community or country does not show an absolute indication on Household Food Security. Sen (1981:4) says that there was a Green Revolution in Asia in the 1960's and 1970's where Asia experienced improved seeds, farm mechanization, fertilizers and irrigations, but other places in Asia and the world over had critical shortages of food.

ii) Food Access

FAO (2008:4) asserts that Food Access can only be achieved when there is better trade, barter, collection of wild foods and good community support networks. Food can also be received as a gift, donation or from theft. Food access is also influenced by availability on the market, the price and purchasing power which is directly involved in employment and livelihood opportunities.

iii) Food Utilisation

Stamulis (2002:12) notes that this is the way the body makes the most of various nutrients in the food. The body's capacity to assimilate nutrients is determined primarily by people's health. The determinants of food utilisation are hygiene, sanitation, water quality, health care practices and food safety.

iv). Stability

FAO (2008:6) explains that the fourth dimension of Food Security is the emphasis on the consistence of the other three dimensions of food availability, access and utilisation. This will enable all the people to get adequate food all the times for a healthy living.

2.7.1. Household food security

Seale (1988:37) mentions that Household Food Security (HFS) is a very important component of human existence. This is a situation where all people in a family have enough to eat as enshrined in the United Nations Declaration of Human Rights. The World Food Programme (2007:1) notes that the Declaration reads as follows:

“Everyone has the right to a standard of living adequate for the health and well being of himself and of his family, including food, clothing, housing, medical care, the necessary social services and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood in circumstances beyond their control.”

Scott (2003:93) explains that because most countries subscribe to this declaration, it is therefore imperative that all governments build holistic approaches to ensure that from the local to the national level strategies are availed to ensure that all households are protected from the UNICEF classes of food insecurity demonstrated on Figure 2.3 below. Scott (2003:93) adds that this enables family members to live a healthy life. Land Reform Programmes initiated by government can also be used to improve HFS.

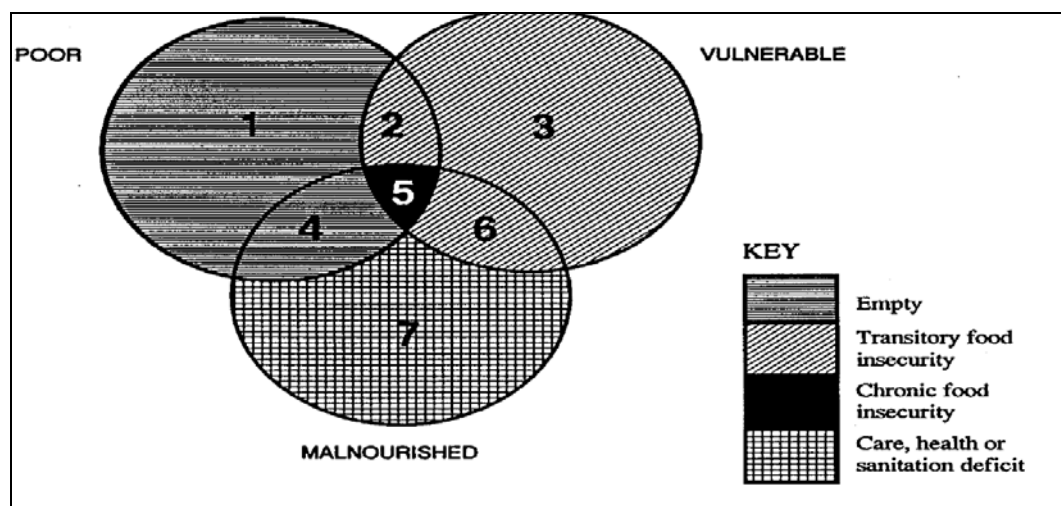


Figure 2.4: UNICEF (1990:25) Different types of household food security.

From all these definitions Mutangadura (2000:45) explains that there are three important components that determine the levels to which Household Food Security can be attained. These are food availability, food consumption or utility and food access. Food availability is of particular importance to this research. Mutangadura (2000:45) argues that HFS should be maintained at all the times to reduce the incidents of “food crisis moments” where they have to sell some of their wealth to buy food. Mutangadura (2000:45) states that most families may never recover from the response to household food shortage.

2.7.2. Key characteristics of household food security

Frankernberger (1991:7) explains that there are four key factors to Household Food Security. These are sufficiency, access, security and time. They are discussed in detail as follows

i) Sufficiency

Frankernberger (1991:7) says sufficiency is the measure of the level of consumption of a household. This also relates to the ‘norm’, the basic food needed to meet the basic nutritional requirements in a household. Devereux (2006:15) also explains that this is adequate food for a household which is enough for a good health and the normal growth for the entire household especially the most vulnerable members of the family. The World Bank (1992:29) adds that the food should provide the necessary energy and nutritional requirements for the family so that it lives an active and productive life. Frankernberger (1991:9) using his extrapolation came to the conclusion that sufficiency is also measured by the level of income that comes to the household per annum. Household that earned below US\$370 per annum in 1985 were poor. Those that were earning below US\$275 were extremely poor. This is an indication of families that were not having sufficient food for their day to day living.

Devereux (2006:15) says that sufficiency is also reflected by the calories consumed by a family each day. This defines an active healthy life. If there is a short fall the

extent of the shortfall should be ascertained. Sufficiency begins with the individual requirements and builds up to the household level.

ii) Household's access and entitlement

Joy (2006:170) says this relates to how easy it is for a family to get food, the fundamental human right to food that is enshrined in the United Nations bill of rights. Joy (2006:170) adds that the study of household access and entitlement lead to the study of functional classification of malnourished people. Frankernberger (19991:23) says that access and entitlement to food also involves identifying the people who are poor and why they are poor. Joy (2006)'s functional classification included ecological, demographic and economic factor.

iii) Security

Frankernberger (1991:25) asserts that one of the key factors to Household Food Security is access to enough food. These are mechanisms that exist to ensure that the vulnerable maintain their entitlement to food. The presence of risk avoidance strategies is key to ensuring Household Food Security. Joy (2006:10) explains that some of the key risks are crop failure, natural disasters, food production, price fluctuations and theft. The issues of security are very critical to vulnerable households because they have a very high risk of succumbing to severe food scarcity shocks. Joy (2006:10) adds that vulnerable families can also face risks in food entitlement if there is high variability in source of income for example wages and salaries and local or regional conflict. Frankernberger (1991:25) argues that to reduce the risk of loss of entitlement they is need to increase production by providing loans, inputs, support of good agricultural practices.

iv). Time

Devereux (2006:15) concurs with Joy (2006:10) that in order to maintain Household Food Security it is important that access to food is maintained all the time as described by FAO (2008) in their definition of food security. Devereux (2006:15) explains that there are 2 types of food shortages, it can either be chronic or it can be transitory. Chronic food shortages occur when a household runs a continually high risk of the inability to meet the food needs of a household. Devereux (2006:15) says that on the other hand transitory food shortages occur when a household faces a temporal decline in the security of its entitlement and the risk of failure to meet food needs is of a short duration.

2.3. Households with high risks of losing food entitlement

Households may lose their food entitlements when a household head or bread winner is terminated from employment. FAO (2008) also mentions that loss of livelihoods which may include loss of food production and fluctuation in market prices. This results in shocks that threaten the Food Security of a household. FAO (2008) also explains that households which experience asset shocks are more likely to lose their food entitlement. This happens when there is a sudden unanticipated drop in the quantities of assets due to theft, death or debt seizure. Devereux (2006:18) asserts that HIV/AIDS is now very common especially in Africa South of the Sahara. This happens when an economically active household head or bread winner develops AIDS this compromises the family earnings or wealth because part of the wealth will be sold to meet treatment costs.

2.7.4. Household food security and nutrition

Frankenberger (1991:34) asserts that the level of Household Food Security is also measured by the level of intake of nutritious food. This is the diet quality and the level of micronutrients intake. Frankenberger (1991:35) says the indicators of

nutrition deficiency in household include loss of weight among adults and malnourishment related diseases like kwashiorkor among children. FAO (2008:49) says this requires a holistic approach where an adequate dietary intake is enforced in a disease free environment. In some circumstances child care is required to reduce the level of disease among the household so that they can benefit from the intake of nutritious food. FAO (2008:11) also adds that solutions bordering around the management of livelihoods strategies are quite key in enabling a source of income and food. Figure 2.9 below shows that lack of nutritious food results in malnutrition and death. Some of the causes of malnutrition and death explained in the diagram include disease, poor maternal care and poor delivery of food.

2.7.5. Household food security and livelihoods

Sen (1981:43) asserts that the issue of livelihoods is central to the analysis of access and entitlement to Food Security. An assessment of Food Security involves the identification of risks facing particular social groups and mapping their vulnerabilities. In his hierarchy of needs Handy (1985:30) notes that food is the first need on Abraham Maslow's hierarchy of needs, all other needs will not be met if food is not met. Livelihoods are essentially a source of food and cash to meet the household dietary requirement. Sen (1981:43) says that Food Security among households will be achieved when equitable growth ensures that the poor and vulnerable have sustainable livelihoods.

2.7.6. Household food security sustainability, resilience and sensitivity

Frankenberger (2008:133) asserts that secure households should be able to sustain the 'norm' when there is a form of food crisis. This involves the aspect of endurance so that there is a continuous provision of food in the family. Frankenberger (2008:133) says sustainable household is one that strives to avail food to its members consistently over a long period of time. Sen (1981) says a resilient

household is one that suffers some form of food shortages but quickly recovers to the norm.

A fragile household is one that is not resilient because it is increasingly insecure to food shocks. That household is also termed very sensitive. Sen (1981:43) notes that household sensitivity is the level of resilience, the capacity to absorb change or the ability of a household to return to the 'norm' after a food crisis. A family with a high resilience requires a major disturbance to overcome the limits. Sen (1981: 43) says that sustainability, resilience and a low sensitivity to food shocks can be enhanced by livelihood programmes and good social networks

2.7.7. Household food security and human rights

FAO (2008:88) says that the Human Rights Based Approach to Food Security explains that food is a basic human right and it is the responsibility of governments to ensure that households have adequate food. This is enshrined in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights adopted by the General Assembly of the United Nations in 1948. The document recognizes the importance of economic, social and cultural rights in articles 22 to 27. Article 25 states that:

'Food, clothing, housing and medical care are necessary social services, and the right to security in the event of unemployment, sickness, disability, widowhood, old age or other lack of livelihood'
United Nations (1948:36).

Frankenberger (1991:203) explains that this right to food can be observed through improved methods of food production, conservation and distribution. Equitable food distribution is key to ensuring that households have adequate food under the Rights Based Approach to Food Security.

2.7.8. Household food security indicators

Frankenberger (1991:96) lists some of the most important HFS indicators as follows. Availability of food in local areas, availability of agricultural inputs, agricultural production, market infrastructure, access to common resources, climatic factors especially rainfall levels, agro-ecological disparities, livestock, community social networks, presence of weather and crop forecasts, food balance sheets, pest management and local and regional conflicts. Frankenberger (1991) notes that people who live in areas with a high risk of food shortages will eventually develop a self insurance coping strategy to minimize risk to their HFS and livelihoods. Some of the households may resort to the sale of assets or migrating to regions where they can easily find employment so as to feed the family

2.8.0. Food availability, land reform and household food security

According to the World Food Programme WFP (2007:23) food availability entails bringing the right quantities of food in time to the families who need it. The Joint United Nations Programme on HIV/AIDS, UNAIDS (2006:87) explains that food availability hinges also on how the land is organized for meaningful farming in the country. If land resources are not properly harnessed through well planned Land Reforms, this may result in Household Food Insecurity. Usually good Land Reform Programmes results in increased food availability and thus improved Household Food Security.

2.8.1. Measuring household food security

Arikomoh (2001:42) emphasises the need for an accurate account of the nature and extent of food needs among households. This helps the relevant authorities to make an appropriate response to the need of the different households.

Proper tabulated data on where the food is needed, who needs the food, how much food is needed, and when do these people need the food is very important.

Frankernberger (2002:8) explains the importance of qualitative research methods and tools to use during food assessment. Examples of these methods include household risk mapping and household problem solving. These methods help to give a good description of the household food situation so that an appropriate response is given. Some of the indicators used in measuring household food security include employment of household member, level of education, assets, animals at homestead, labour, inputs, harvests, climate and geo physical environments among other factors. These methods are holistic in nature and another additional strength in them is that they are gender sensitive. These tools can be used before and after a Land Reform programme to ensure that HFS is maintained.

2.8.2. Country food policy on Household Food Security

Borg (1993:23) asserts that a country's policy is a blue print document that guides the national effort in enhancing Food Security in a household or country. The document should describe accurately the situation as regards to Food Security in the country. This helps in mobilising appropriate responses to the crises. Borg (1993:23) also adds that the policy should help to identify the vulnerable people who need assistance. The policy should also come up with the best strategies for fighting this problem. Adequate funding should be availed to the task force responsible for Food Security so that they are ready to respond to crisis situations that threaten people's Food Security. Borg (1993:23) says that a carefully planned Land Reform should be part of a country's policy as it enhances Household Food Security.

2.9. Conclusion

This chapter has shown clearly that Land Reform is essentially to give land to the landless peasants so that they can improve their HFS. Land Reform can include change of farming methods, land use, ownership or fragmentation of land so that more people can get land. The process of Land Reform is usually a political exercise because it is normally a promise to the masses during a liberation struggle. This chapter has shown that an effective Land Reform empowers the people so that they can improve their Household Food Security. Chapter three will now show some of the methods that were used during collecting data on the impact of the Fast Track Land Reform Programme on Household Food Security in Mutare District, Zimbabwe.

CHAPTER THREE

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

Chapter two discussed the related literature of this research. Chapter three will bring the analytical framework of the research to light. This is the template on which the methodology of this research will be based. To complement the analytical framework discussed in this chapter the survey research design and its applicability in the research are discussed. Furthermore issues of the population and the sample will be discussed in depth and this will form the basis for the administration of the research instrument which is the questionnaire. The chapter will also describe the plan for the data analysis. The Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) data analysis software is going to be used to analyse the data in this research.

3.2. Analytical framework

Below is an analytical framework which was used to show the impact of the FTLRP on the Household Food Security (HFS) in Mutare District, Zimbabwe. The model was adapted from the works of Cliffe (2003:23).

The analytical framework on Figure 3.1 is the basis for the data collection and analysis. The diagram shows the major indicators that were used to assess the impact of the Fast Track Land Reform on Household Food security. The four major indicators used in this framework are the household food availability, number of meals of the household, the household food stores and the extra food.

3.2.1 Household food availability

Cliffe (2003:23) asserts that food availability refers to the type, quantity and quality of food in the family. So in this research an assessment is made to establish the extent of these variables after the FTLRP.

3.2.2. Number of meals Of the households

It is cultural and a standard norm for people in Mutare District to have a total of three meals a day. This is considered the most basic household food requirements in a day. Therefore the measure of the number of meals taken by a household in a day, before and after the FTLRP gives an indication of the impact of the Land Reform Programme on Household Food Security.

3.2.3. Household Food Stores

The term Food Stores refers to the amount of food stored by a household as a reserve at any particular moment, Cliffe (2003:23). Excess food stores give a reflection of the HFS, Cliffe (2003:23). Availability of food reserves is a sign of a good HFS. A comparison was also made between the food reserves of a family before and after the FTLRP.

3.2.4. Extra food for households

This is the excess food over and above that is stored in the granary, Cliffe (2003:23). Extra food is that which is left over from the family requirements in a given period, Cliffe (2003:23). In this analytical framework the amount of extra food that now remains in each household will be measured, this indication will be used to measure the impact of the FTLRP on Household Food Security.

It is the combination of all these indicators that are used as a basis to measure the impact of the Land Reform on HFS. The data collection tool, the research design, the questionnaire and the data analysis strategy will be guided by the framework. All the information collected in the research is superimposed on the framework to bring out meaningful information on the impact of the FTLRP on HFS

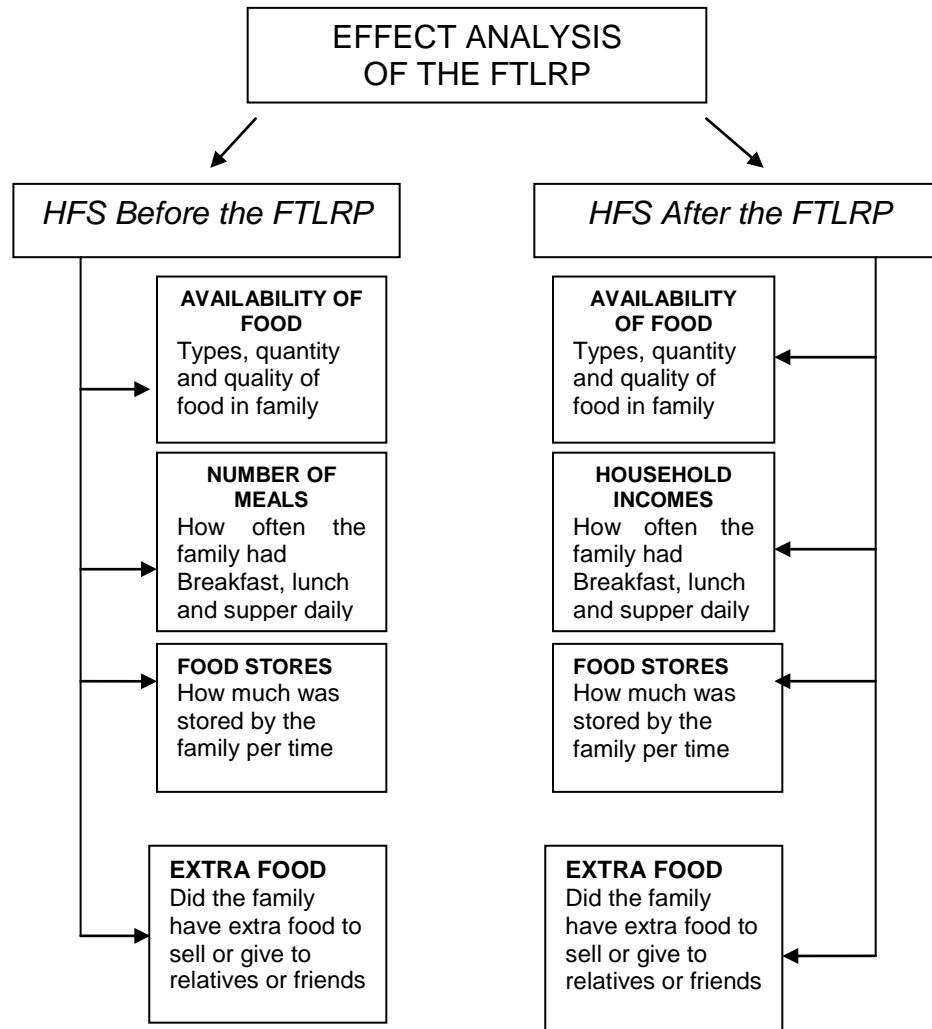


Figure 3.1: Analytical framework used with a questionnaire

3.3. Research design

This research used a survey research design as described by Maree (2007:155). It is mainly a face to face survey that is administered through questionnaires. Macmillan and Schumacher (2001:602) in Maree (2007:155) define a survey research design as “the assessment of the current status, opinions beliefs and attitudes by questions or interviews from a known population”. A survey sets to describe and interprets the status quo as regards the behaviours, beliefs, observations of a particular issue under discussion in the research. In this

research the survey research design was used to describe the impact of the FTLRP on Household Food Security in Mutare.

Maree (2007:155) says the survey design is used to collect and interpret the data so as to create a deeper understanding of the impact of the Land Reform Programme on Household Food Security. Strauss (1995:24) states that a survey is a more natural way of enquiry as it tries to understand phenomenon in its natural context. There is no manipulation of issues in a true survey. The research design is limited by the sample size, the time available, the budget and the required confidence levels. 322 people were the sample size in this research from a population of 2000 household heads, Krejcie & Morgan (1970). In this research the stages outlined by Creative Research Systems (2009:25) was used in this research. The stages are as follows:

- Step 1: Establishing the goals of the research.
- Step 2: Determining the sample
- Step 3: Choosing the interviewing methodology
- Step 4: Creating your questionnaire
- Step 5: Pretesting of the questionnaire
- Step 6: Conducting interviews and entering the data
- Step 7: Analysing the data and then compile a report.

Creative Research Systems (2009:45) explains that during the research the survey will be guided by the goals of the research. In this case the goal is to find out the impact of Land Reform on Household Food Security. The interview methodology which was the face to face interview also determined the form in which the survey took.

Finally the data capture and the data analysis that was used in this research also determined the nature of the survey. The interview research tool was used to gather data and the SPSS software was also used to analyse it so as to get

results. Prosser (1998:56) alludes to the fact that the survey design is a comprehensive method of taking information from a wide coverage. Mhlanga (2003) asserts that the survey method is not without its pitfalls. Below is the strengths and weakness of the survey method.

3.3.1. The strengths of the survey research design

According to Maree (2007:155), the following are some of the strengths of this design:

- It is very useful in describing opinions, attitudes, feelings and perceptions of a given population.
- The design has clearly marked stages that make it easy for the researcher to follow.
- Has very clearly defined variables.
- Tables, frequency distribution graphs and other graphs give a good visual impression of the statistics this makes comparisons easy.

3.3.2. The weaknesses of the survey research design

Maree (2007:155) states that the following are some of the limitations of this design:

- Coding of peoples' opinions, attitudes, feelings and perceptions is a very subjective exercise and is difficult to measure the extent of these variables and subsequently to quantify them accurately.
- Choosing a representative sample may prove to be a very difficult task.
- It is very difficult and costly to collect information from a wrongly constituted sample.
- It is difficult to display data in the relevant graphs if the researcher is not mathematically oriented.

3.4. Population and sample

The population of Mutare District is estimated to be around 389 988, (Central Statistics Office, 2008). The population of this research is about 2 000 household heads, these are the household heads that participated in the FTLRP. (Central Statistical Office, 2008). A sample of 322 households as recommended by Krejcie & Morgan (1970) was selected for the purposes of this research. The head of each household participated in the interview. The sample of 322 households was chosen to participate in this research because the households in Mutare Rural Districts are fairly homogenous and would reflect the generality of the population. The sample was also limited to 322 households because of time and financial resource constraints. For the purposes of this research the random stratified sampling method was used and limited to the people in Mutare Districts, Maree (2007:175). This involved taking households from the different Land Reform models and also from different villages.

This method entailed organising the people into strata according to a set classification. The classification includes the households in the A1 and A2 Land Reform Scheme. It also takes cognisance of the different villages that exist. The proportional allocation method, Maree (2007:175), was used for each stratum. And in each stratum the random sampling method was used to ensure that each member of the population has an equal chance of participating in the research Maree (2007:175).

3.5. Data collection procedures

The main research instrument that was used to collect data was the administered questionnaire with close-ended questions. Interviews were conducted on household heads from the sample population of 322 households. A pilot study was conducted with a group of 20 households from the population. Adjustments

were then made to ensure that the instrument is indeed collecting valid and reliable data.

The instrument of this nature helped in capturing what really transpired during the FTLRP. The probing, clarifications and the rephrasing for example assisted in the research to get more from the respondents. The interview was also appropriate because it was a two way conversation where sometimes first hand information was collected thus ensuring the accuracy of the research. The other advantage of an interview is that most of the respondents were reached because an attempt was made to go to where they are.

3.5.1. Construction of questionnaire

Dirwai et al (2003) says that a questionnaire should be made in such a way that it covers the objectives of the project. That means the researchers should restrict themselves to relevant aspects only. In a questionnaire the same questions are asked to different respondents. The questions should be very clear with a simple language that enables them to be used in interviews. Dirwai et al (2003) points out that they are two types of questions an open question and closed question.

The open ended questions are very flexible and accommodative as they leave room for the interviewer to include much information but within the scope of the question. This question is subjective and respondents can waste time by giving a vast amount of irrelevant information. Dirwai et al (2003) alludes to the fact that a closed question is objective and requires the respondent to give a specific answer. These can come in the form of a multiple choice question. In this research the closed type of questions were used.

3.5.2. Pilot study

It is also important to note at this juncture that a good questionnaire has to be pre-tested for workability. This is the ability of the instruments to collect correct and relevant information. This has to be done in an environment that approximates the true environment in the field. Pre-testing the questionnaire is important because it gives the researcher an opportunity to edit the questionnaire according to the circumstances.

In this research the author pre-tested the questionnaires on twenty households from Mutare District. The household heads also indicated questions that were vague and difficult to comprehend. The household heads also showed that they had reservations on providing detailed information on their personal life. After the recommendations during the pilot study the questionnaire was also cut short as it turned out that it was long. This information helped to edit the questionnaire and make it more suitable.

3.5.3. The observation method

The observation is another data collection tool used to complement the questionnaire in this research. Observation method is a practical and relevant strategy used for data collection (Dirwai, 2003). Dirwai (2003) notes further that the observation method is a very practical and relevant strategy used for data collection. Dirwai (2003) notes that the observation method is a strategy used for taking note of respondents' behaviour in their natural setting. Observations in this study included the pattern of HFS before and after the FTLRP.

Dirwai (2003) goes on to explain that observation has two main types.

- Participant observation that is essentially qualitative.

- Structured observation that is a quantitative style.

The observation is an investigative and exploratory strategy on useful information that is used either to support or refute an assumption.

Dirwai et al (2003) also states that they are two types of observations. In the first method the group does not know that somebody is observing their behaviour. This helps eliminate the element of artificiality. In the second method the observer explains to the group what he wants to observe. It is then possible in these circumstances for the observer to ask for clarification on behaviours noted. In this research the respondent are aware that we are observing on the impact of the FTLRP on HFS.

3.5.4. Administration of the observation method

In the study the questionnaire was first administered and the research assistants would move round the homestead to identify key features that have a bearing on HFS. Some of the key features found included livestock, gardens, granary, a well and an orchard.

3.6. Data presentation

Data from the sample population was first entered on each questionnaire. After the whole exercise data was entered on the SPSS software which resembled a spread sheet. This made it easier to notice patterns that emerged on the data. For example it was easy to identify families that had children who had suffered from a deficiency related disease like kwashiorkor before the FTLRP for example.

The Statistical Package for Social Sciences (S.P.S.S) was useful in capturing raw data with the use of the computer.

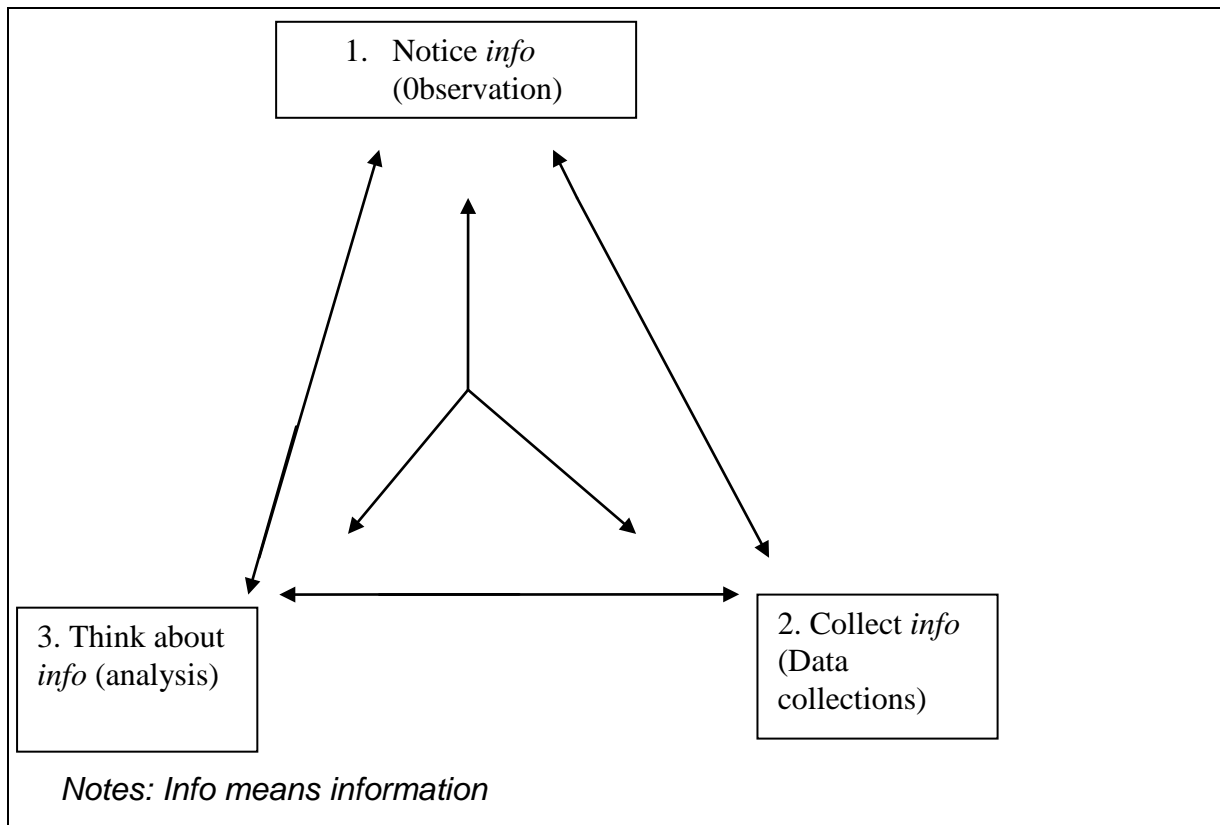


Figure 3.2: Qualitative data analysis process Maree (2007:100).

3.7. Data analysis

The model from Maree (2007;100) on Figure 3.2 above on the qualitative data analysis process was adapted and used in this study. This process assisted in providing a framework on which to track significant qualitative data, collect it and analyse it through critical thinking, Maree (2007:100). The following data analysis strategies were also used to analyse information collected during the interviews, the hermeneutics, content analysis, conservation analysis, discourse analysis and narrative analysis, Maree (2007:101).

The SPSS programme was also used to analyse quantitative data. These data analysis strategies were used in trying to get meaning from information collected during the interviews. All quantitative data were tabled in different graphical ways like the pie chart and frequency polygon. This made further analyses of such data easy using quantitative descriptive or inferential analytical tools. During the data analysis process a number of strategies were used to analyse quantitative data, Chimedza (2003:106). This includes inputting in the SPSS software to give the mean, mode or median for example.

3.8. Ethical considerations

Ethical considerations with regards to the rights of participants were applied when collecting data (Kumar, 1999:190-196; Bless & Higson-Smith, 2000:100). For example, participants were not forced to participate in the interviews. For this study, direct informed consent was given by participants through the signing of a consent form to show that they participated out of their own free will. For this study confidentiality and anonymity (no names were mentioned) was ensured by the researcher and the information was only to be used for the stated purpose of the research, Kumar (1999:194)

3.9. Conclusion

Chapter three has explained the analytical framework that was used in the data collection and analysis. The research's chapter four will be based on this chapter as it guides and regulates all the data presentation and analysis. In this chapter the research design which is that of the survey research design helped during the data collection. It came out clear in this chapter that the survey design is useful in the description of opinions, attitudes, feelings and perceptions of a given population. The preceding chapter, chapter four will now give the most important part of the research which is data presentation and analysis.

CHAPTER FOUR

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1. Introduction

This study was conducted in Mutare District, 265km from the capital city Harare. Mutare has a population of 398 988 and is 18.9667 degrees latitude and 32.667 degrees longitude. Its area is 5.650 kilometer square. In a good year the annual rainfall exceeds 1000mm. The Foreign Agricultural Services (2007) say that the cool temperatures of an average of 23 degree Celsius make fruit and specialized agriculture possible. In this research a study was made into the impact of the Fast Track land Reform Programme on Household Food Security. A sample population of 322 households was used and the main tool for the data collection was the interviewer administered questionnaire. The field data collection was carried out in September 2010 and the results of this survey are the main concern of chapter 4.

4.2.0. Demographic Information

4.2.1. Disaggregated sample population

Table 4.1: Disaggregated sample population from the research.

	MALES		FEMALES		TOTAL	
	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.
BENEFICIARIES						
Civil Servants	22	72	9	29	31	101
War Veterans	14	47	7	24	22	71
Villagers	24	79	10	35	35	114
Business Community	6	21	4	15	11	36
Totals	68	219	31	103	100	322

Table 4.1 shows that 31% (101 household heads) from the sample were derived from the civil servants. 35% were villagers moving from the communal areas to the formerly white owned farms. Table 4.1 further shows that 103 women household heads participated in the FTLRP and that consists 31% of the total population.

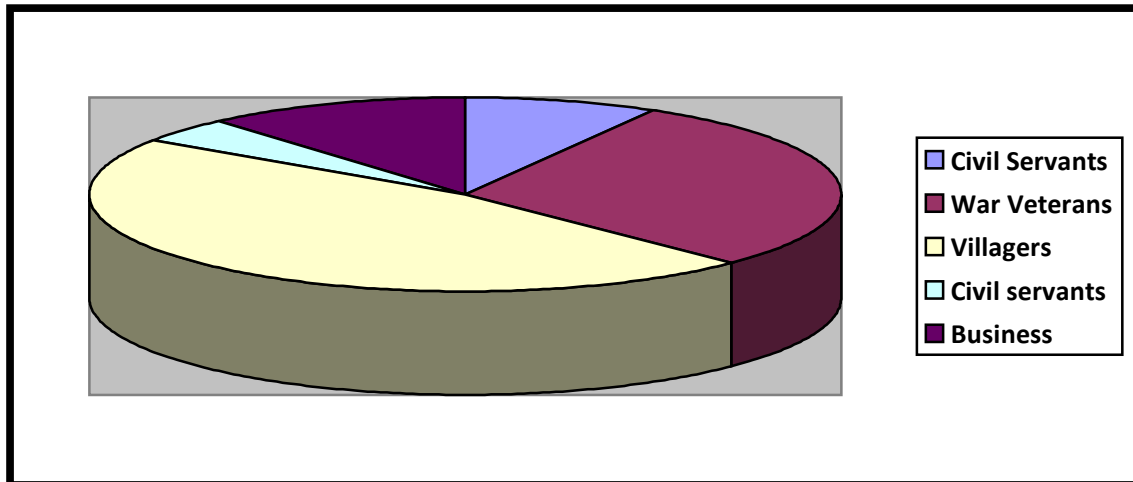


Figure 4.1: A pie chart showing the proportions of the sample population.

Figure 4.1 shows that a total of 22% of the sample population represents the war veterans who were beneficiaries of the FTLRP. But if we consider war veterans who are also civil servants, business people and villagers the number rises to 42%. The population represents all the locations and villages of Mutare District.

The statistics presented above show that more males benefited from the FTLRP than women. The other reason why more men seem to have benefited is that in the traditional culture of this area the men is the head of the home so more men came out as household heads. It is also evident that most people who were beneficiaries of the FTLRP were people who were also in another occupation like civil servants and business people. This had a huge bearing on the overall productivity on the farms as most farms with absentee landlords do not have meaningful yields.. The huge numbers in war veteran beneficiaries is simply

because they were given first preference since this was their promise during the war. Again the war veterans put in pressure on the government to act on the issue of land reform. Some war veterans simply invaded the farms and started processing their offer letter from the farms.

4.2.2. Household characteristics

Most households had between 4 and 7 household members who in most cases consisted of children and relatives. In some cases families temporarily stayed with a few farm workers. Since the workers were not part of the permanent family structure, they were excluded from the data of this research. Table 4.2 shows that 102 households had members between 4 and 5 while 90 households had between 6 and 7 members. Altogether the two groups of 192 households form 59.6% of the sample population. Figure 4.2 show that 64 households had 3 or less members in their families. Below is the questions used to collect the data. Table 4.2 and Figure 4.2 show the numbers of families with different family members.

Question: How many members are there in your household?

Table 4.2: Members in different households

	Below 3	Between 4 and 5	Between 6 and 7	Above 7
Number of members	67	102	90	63
% of members	20	31	27	19

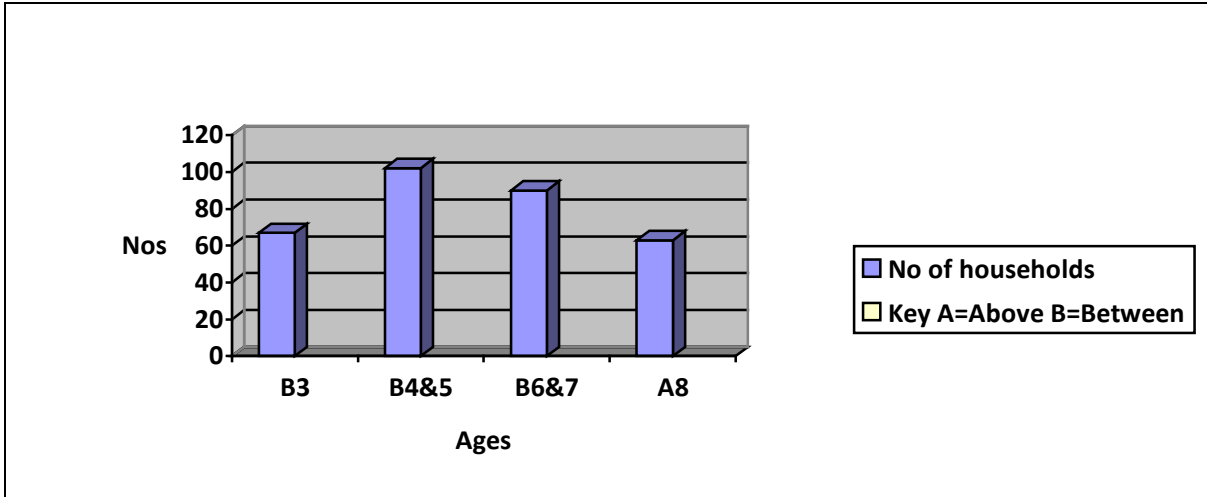


Figure 4.2: Bar graph showing proportions of members in different households

The statistics given above show that most of the households in the area had between 4 and 7 children. Few families had less than 3 members or more than 7 members

The research went further to disaggregate the family members by male and female. This had a bearing on labour force on the farm hence Household Food Security. Table 4.3 below depicts that from the sample population 29 households have more that 4 males in their families. 123 households had between 4 and 5 females and 25 have more than 5 household members. The interviews also revealed that 154 households have between 4 and 5 members who are over 18 years of age. 68 households have at least 3 members less than 18 years, most of them less than 5 years old. 53 families have more than 8 members below 18 years. Below the Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3 show the different age proportions of the households.

Question: How many family members do you have male/female in the following age ranges.

Table 4.3: Households with members between the stated age groups.

	Below 20	Between 20 and 29	Between 30 and 49	Above 50
Males	138	97	68	29
Females	123	142	32	25

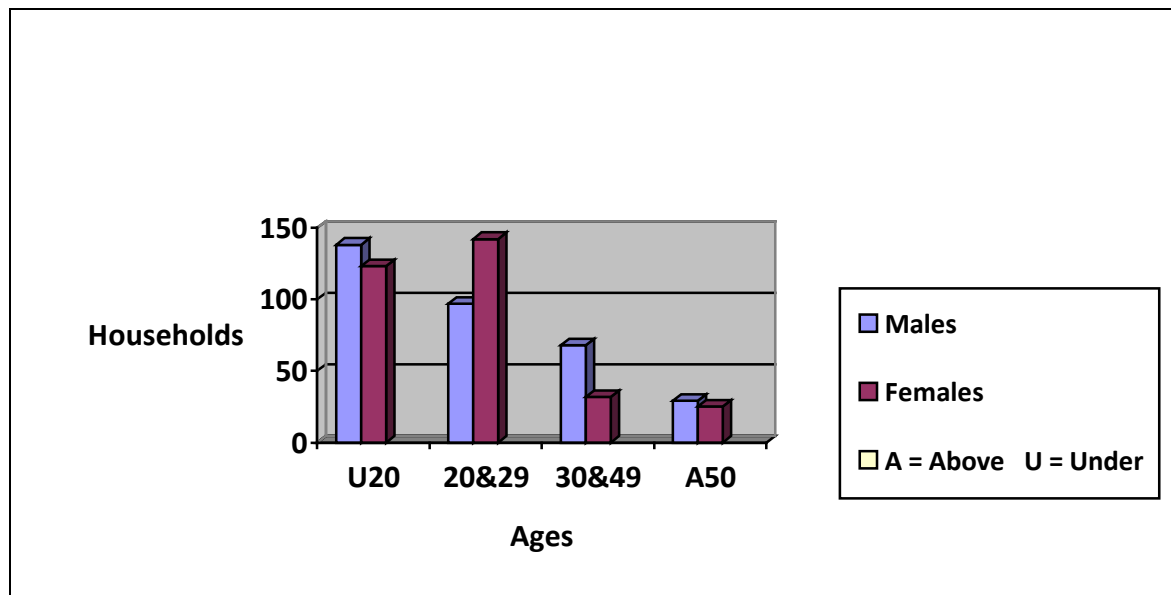


Figure 4.3: Household with members between the stated ages

Table 4.3 and Figure 4.3 above show that there are many young adults in the farming community. The reason given was that because of the high unemployment rate which is above 70% (Central statistics 2006) more young people in the rural areas resorted to working in the farms. The area has few older people above 50 years and much more people below 20 years. These are mostly school going children and unemployed youths

On the proportion of male and female household heads the research further showed that 235 households have male household heads while 27% of the households had a female household head. Most of the household heads are below 45 years (39%) and household heads who are above 50 years form 20%

of the sample. Altogether household heads in the area led by middle aged people or people almost going beyond the economically active age group amount to 195 households (60%). Of the 322 families in the sample population 145 households had heads that are married and 17% of the families either had a single, divorced or a widowed household head.

As described before they are more male household heads because of the cultural influences. Another reason is that many men found it easier to maneuver through the process of acquiring the farm during the FTLRP as compared to women.

4.2.3. Means of livelihood and education levels

The data collected in Table 4.4 and Figure 4.4 below reveal that the sample population consists of people who are fairly literate. Only 37 household heads did not proceed to Grade seven. This is the last and examinable grade in the Zimbabwean Primary Education System. Table 4.4 shows that this consists of 11% of the total sample population. Below the educational level of the sample is shown.

Question: What is your highest level of education?

Table 4.4: Level of education.

	Grade 7 and below	Form 2	Form 4	Certificate and above
Frequency	37	62	51	172

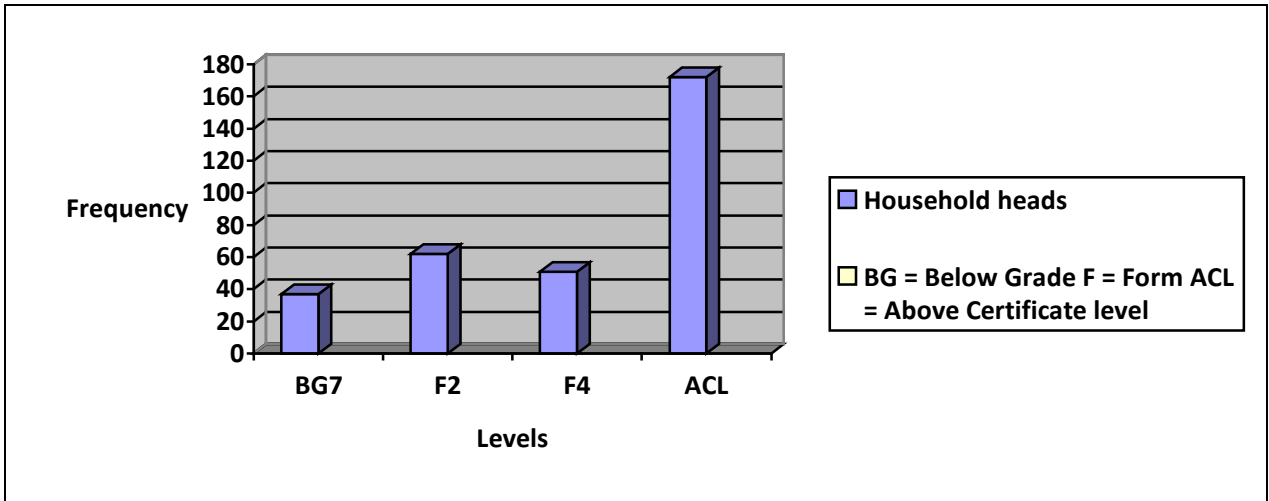


Figure 4.4: Level of education

Table 4.4 and Figure 4.4 show that household heads that went up to grade 7 and forms 2 are 37 and 62 respectively. The majority is made up of people who have gone beyond Form 4. Table 4.4 shows that they are 172 who went beyond certificate level. These people consist of the working class who are mainly civil servants. This group measures up to 53%. Figure 4.4 shows that civil servants consist of the highest number of people who benefited from the FTLRP. Despite the high educational levels witnessed in the entire group most of them are not employed. 27% of the group said they were employed on a full time bases leaving a 73% of people who do not have secure employment. This concurs with the estimated 75% unemployment rate among the civic organization in Zimbabwe.

Before the FTLRP most of the beneficiaries were employed in the farming sector but very informally as peasants and some of them were employed mainly as civil servants, as teachers, nurses, policemen, soldiers among other government departments. The data collected show that there is no significant difference between the livelihoods (employment) of the new farmers before and after the FTLRP. Before the programme 113 household heads were farmers, this

increased slightly to 140. This is a percentage increase of 8% from 35% to 43%. Table 4.5 and Figure 4.5 below show the transition of the livelihoods of people from the pre to the post FTLRP programme.

Question: Before the FTLRP what section of the economy did you work for?

Table 4.5: Employment by sectors before the FTLRP.

	Agriculture	Civil Service	Industry	Home industries (SME)
Frequency	149	129	21	32

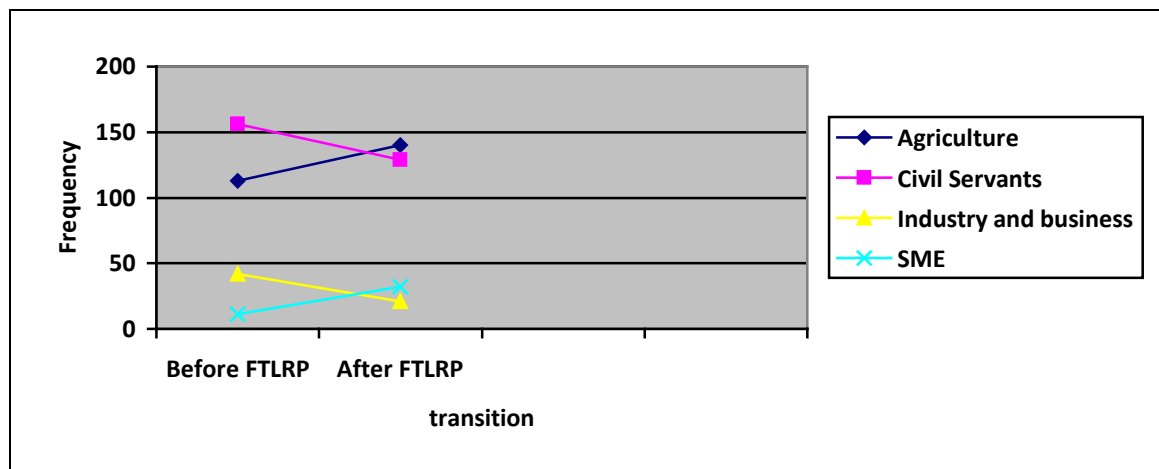


Figure 4.5: Employment before and after the FTLRP

4.2.4. Overall analysis of demographic Information

The analysis below helps to show the level of food security in the households. The components discussed below show the capacity of the family to produce food and how secure a household is and the risk of food security shocks. The variety of the means of livelihoods in a family will show where incomes and food come from. The data shows that most of the household heads that benefitted from the FTLRP are married. However some households were single, divorced or

widowed. Most of the beneficiaries of the FTLRP do not solemnly rely on farming for their livelihood. This is unlike the former white commercial farmers whose livelihood was on the farm. As indicated by Table 4.1. Some farmers are civil servants and business people. This dual status is compromising production on the farms. Quite a number also from the war veterans, war collaborators and villagers are also employed elsewhere with a good number employed as teachers. It was also observed that generally the sample population is quite a literate group.

4.3. Food availability In the family

The statistics collected show that 95 households who form 29.5% of the households had enough food resource before the FTLRP. 71% of the households had food challenges during this period ranging from mild to severe. Of this proportion 13% had severe food shortages. They rarely had 3 full meals a day and relied mainly of begging or food handouts from donors. 22% of this group had enough food with regular shortages. 112 households comprising 34% of the group had enough food throughout the year even though they did not always eat the kinds of foodstuffs that they want. The changes noted among these households after the FTLEP is that the numbers of families who were food insecure fell down to 16 from 42. The number of household, who had enough food to eat, sell or share, rose from 95 to 142. The number of families who now had enough food even though they could not always eat foodstuffs that they wanted to eat rose from 112 to 132.

A number of reasons were given for the low Household Food Security that existed in the families before the FTLRP in Zimbabwe. Some of the reasons given by the 71% of the households that were not food secure include the following:

- 43% of the households found the food in the stores very expensive.

- 27% did not have enough farming inputs
- 30% said their yield were now low due to the low rainfall.

The data gathered showed that the status quo of the household food security had changed after the land reform. The total number of food secure families rose from 29% to 88%. There were varying degrees of household food security. Below are the reasons given for the rise in the household food security status after the FTLRP:

- 68% said it was because of the larger pieces of land that that they had received under the FTLRP.
- 15% said the improved rains, inputs given by the government and irrigation infrastructure helped increase their yields.
- 7% said they became secure because of other projects that they were doing to earn a living.

The questionnaire also collected information that showed instances where people worried because their food was almost running out. This was also used to measure Household Food Security. The responses from the sample group showed that 172 households were often worried that their food would run out before the FTLRP. After the FTLRP the number changed to only 45 household who had the fear that their food would run out. The figure amounts to 13%. There was a sharp drop compared to the 53% before the FTLRP. Before the FTLRP many people (48%) had a few moments where they worried about their food running out but after the Land Reform the number also dropped to 10%.

On the incomes that families received before the FTLRP, 16% of the families said that they used more than USD 200.00 for their monthly groceries compared to 72% of the families that said they could now spare more money for their monthly groceries after the Land Reform because they are now realizing some income from the farming activities which they could now sell to earn some money

to buy family groceries and cater for other expenses. Of the sample population that was interviewed none of them used less than USD20.00 after the FTLRP. This is compared to 43% who were struggling to raise at least USD20.00 for monthly groceries.

4.4. Food reserves and storage

Food reserves and storage was a good indicator of Household Food Security during the interviews. Most of the respondents agreed that an excess of food at the family home showed a generally good Household Food Security. Table 4.6 and Figure 4.6 show that 72% of the respondents said that before the FTLRP it was often that they were confronted with situations where the food they had stored would run out. After the FTLRP the number went down to 7%. That means only 7% had worries of their food not lasting them before the next season. Table 4.6 and Figure 4.6 show the trends on responses of household heads before and after the FTLRP.

Question: Before/After the FTLRP how often did you run out of the food you harvested?

Table 4.6: Harvested food and how long it lasted

	Often	Sometimes	Never	Very Rare
Frequency Before FTLRP	72	12	6	10
Frequency After FTLRP	7	10	4	79

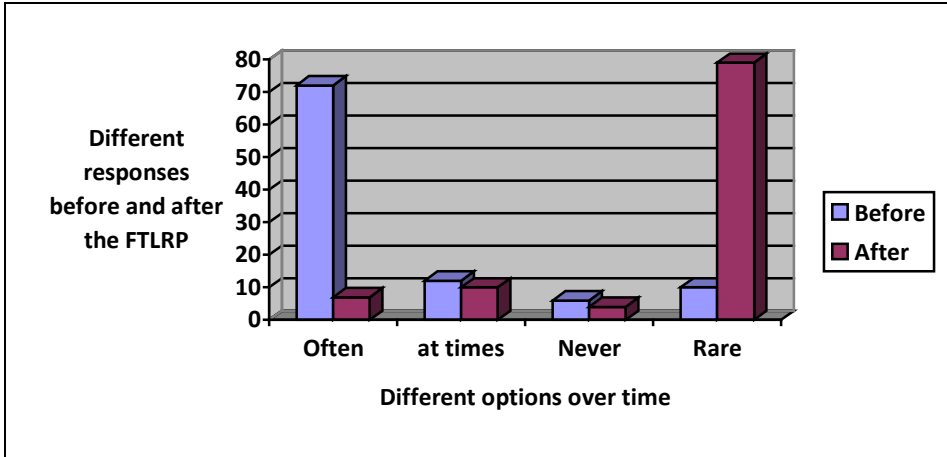


Figure 4.6: Time harvest lasted

The frequency of the meals also assisted in giving indicators of the level of food security. The data collected show that 62% of the sample often could not eat a balanced diet. A balanced diet in this context referred to a meal with carbohydrates, protein, fats, vitamins and vital minerals. Figure 4.7 below shows the proportions (servings) in which different foods should be served.

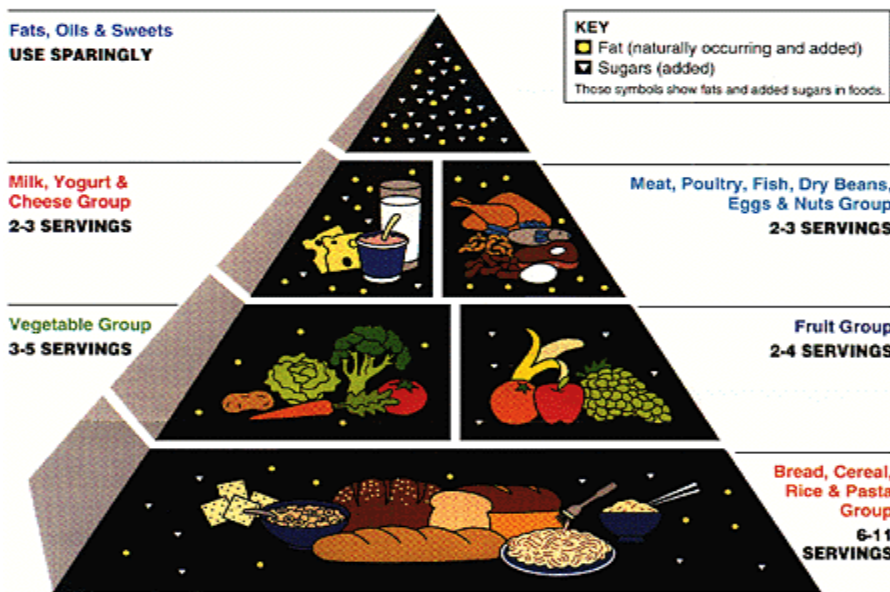


Figure 4.7: FAO (1986:15) A pyramid showing the components of a balanced diet

In this particular community a balanced diet consist of a meal with either rice or sadza, relish cooked with cooking oil and tomatoes to provide fibre and minerals, meat, beans, peas or groundnuts to provide protein and a fruit. Figure 4.7 above shows that after the Land Reform 52% of the sample population said it was very rare to eat an unbalanced meal compared to 6% before.

It was noted in the interviews that most of the families who did not afford a balanced diet feed their households with low cost food. Before the FTLRP 212 families who form 66% of the population feed their families with low cost food items. The low cost food items consisted of soya chunks, vegetables cooked without cooking oil, onions or tomatoes, low grade roller meal, wild fruits and leaves, wild animals and wild birds.

The picture changed after the FTLRP as 50% of the families rarely fed their families with low cost food items. A further 32% said they never fed their families with low cost food compared to 12% before the FTLEP. After the FTLRP only 32 families said they sometimes had low cost food items, compared to 10% of the families before the land FTLRP.

The interviewer probed further to see why they did not have balanced meals. 90% of the sample said because they were farming on poor soils so their yields were very low.

Again their income from the poor soils was greatly compromised. The two pie charts below show the extent of the families who did not have adequate quality food because of they had poor farms in their communal areas.

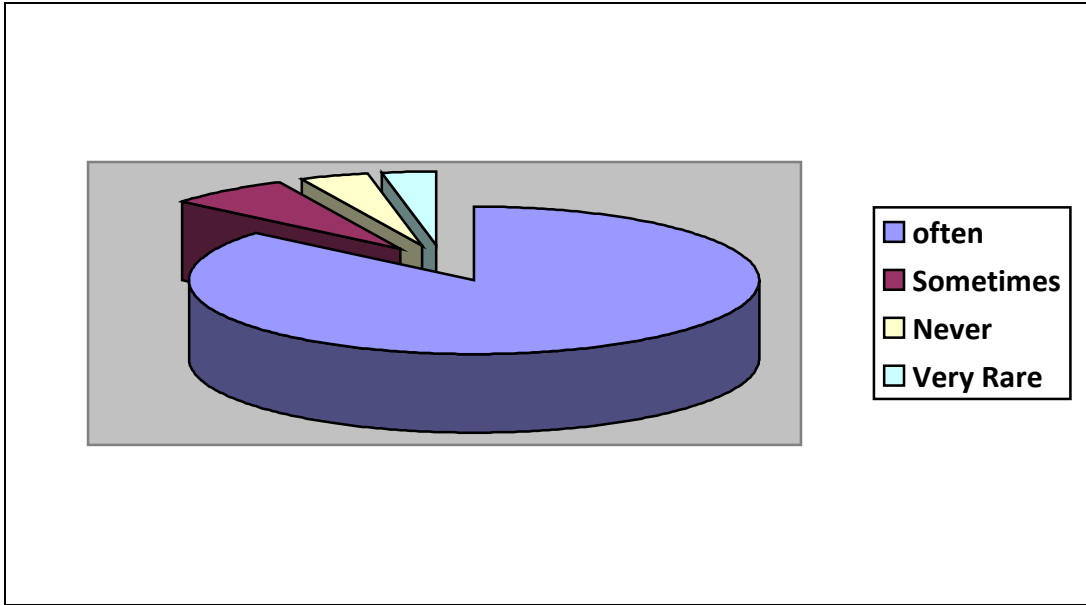


Figure 4.8: Percentage of people who had low harvests because of the poor land before the FTLRP.

Figure 4.8 above show that 86% of the sample population said the issue of poor land was the most common reason why they did not have enough food to eat. Only 7% said the issue of land was sometimes the reason while 4% and 3% said that they never and rarely had inadequate food because of their poor farms.

4.5 Children’s diet as a measure of household food security

Figure 4.8 shows the extent to which children under the age of 5 years were affected by the scarcity of food in the families. This was because the household heads could not afford the food on sale. This occurred due to the production of inadequate harvests to sell for sustaining the family.

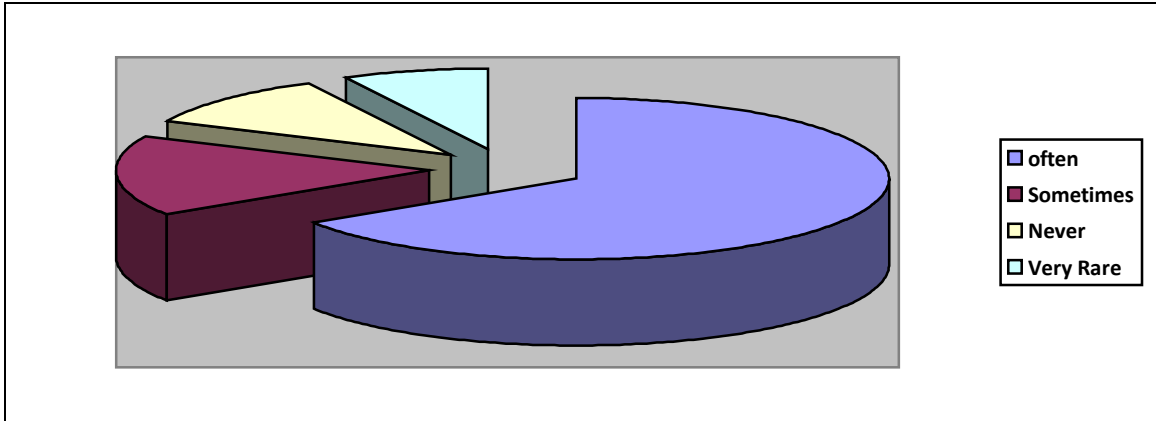


Figure 4.9A: Households that could not feed their children before the FTLRP

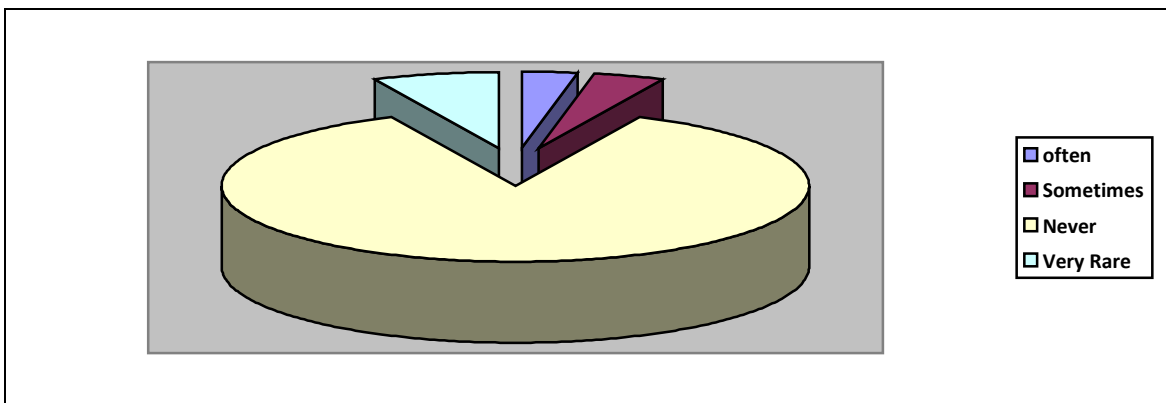


Figure 4.9B: Households that failed to feed their children after the FTLRP

The two pie charts above show that before the FTLRP 72% of the households often had challenges adequately providing for their children under the age of five years. This percentage constitutes 231 families from the sample population. This is compared to only 3% who often had a similar problem after the FTLRP. 15% said that they sometimes had challenges providing for their children under the age of 5. The number dropped to 4% after the FTLRP. There was a huge disparity on the number of household heads who never failed to feed their families because they did not have enough food from the fields and enough

money to buy more food from the shops. 10% of the households said that before the FTLRP they never had any challenges feeding their families. The percentage increased exponentially to 86% after the FTLRP. That means 276 families could adequately provide for their children below 5 years and they never had any challenges to that regard.

4.6. Food for the adults as an indicator of household food security

The availability of adequate food for the adults was a useful indicator for Household Food Security. In most of the households the adults had to cut the size of their meals in order to give the children adequate food. So in situations where adults do not have to share their food with children because it is sufficient, that is a sign of a high indicator of household food security. In Figure 4.10 below 83% of the sample population had to often cut the size of their meals to give children before the FTLRP. This amounts to 267 households. After the FTLRP only 2% admitted that they had to cut the size of their meals to give to the children because the food was not enough

Question: Before/After the FTLRP, did you or other adults in your household ever cut the size of your meals or skip meals because there was not enough food or money to buy the food.

Table 4.7: Households with adults who had to cut their food.

	Often	Sometimes	Never	Very Rare
Frequency Before FTLRP	72	12	6	10
Frequency After FTLRP	7	10	4	79

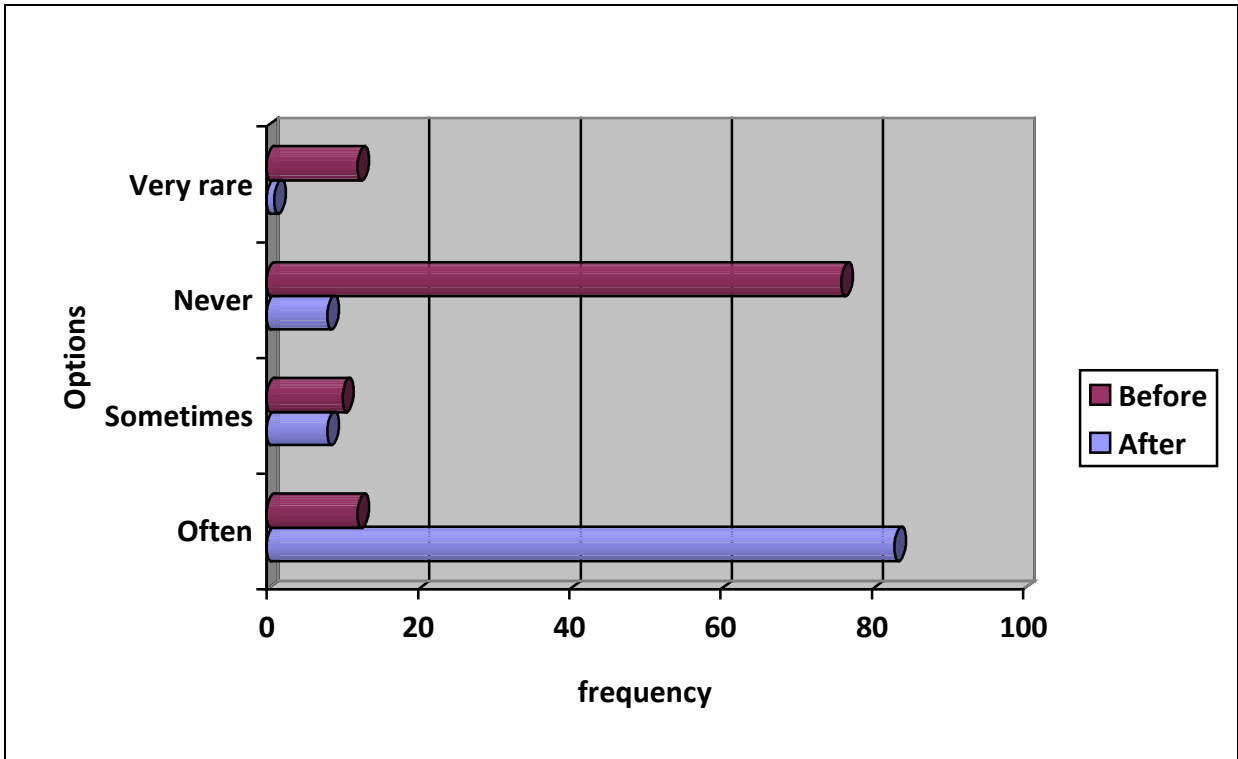


Figure 4.10: Adults who had to cut their food

Figure 4.10 above also shows that after the FTLRP 76% never had to cut the size of their food to give to the children because the food was insufficient. This is compared to only 8% before the land reform programme of people who had to cut their food to give to the children. The percentage of households who seldom shared their food with the children also rose from 1% to 12% after the FTLRP.

During the interviews it was noted that some of the households had to cut the food that was eaten because they had no money to buy the food. Figure 4.11 below shows the extent to which families had to cut the amount of food consumed in the household because of scarcity of resources. Figure 4.10 shows that 79% of the sample population (254 households) often cut the size of the food they eat because of the scarcity of the food. This is compared by the 7% who had a similar problem after the FTLRP. Only 5% of the population confidently

said that they never had to cut the size of their food. There was a sharp rise after the FTLRP because 52% said that they never had to cut the size of food that was consumed by the household.

Question: Before/After the FTLRP, did you or other adults in your household ever eat less because there was not enough food left in the home.

Table 4.8: Households who had to eat less because they was no money left in the household.

	Often	Sometimes	Never	Very Rare
Before the FTLRP	79%	13%	5%	3%
After the FTLRP	7%	18%	52%	23%

Some of the households actually reached a stage where the family members had to go hungry because of food scarcity. Most of the household experienced this problem before the FTLRP. As depicted by Figure 4.9 below, 67% went hungry because they had no food. There was a big improvement after the FTLRP with only 9% of the households admitting that they were hungry. 23% of the households which represent 74 families said that at times they confronted that problem. This is compared to only 12% of the household after the FTLRP. 71% of the families said that they never went hungry after the FTLRP, this is compared to only 5% who did not go hungry before the FTLRP. 5% before the FTLRP and 9% after the FTLRP said it was very rare for them to be hungry because they could not afford to buy adequate food.

Question: Before/After the FTLRP, were you ever hungry because you could not afford to buy enough food?

Table 4.9: Households that were hungry because they did not afford to buy the food.

	Often	Sometimes	Never	Very Rare
Before the FTLRP	67%	23%	5%	5%
After the FTLRP	9%	12%	71%	9%

4.7. Losing weight as an indicator of household food security

It was observed during the period before the Land Reform Programme that there was a general shortage of food amongst many households who did not have adequate rich space to farm. Many other factors could have resulted in this shortage but among the sample population the issue of the land was a topical issue. Because of the extreme shortages of food it was then noticed that a lot of people lost body weight. Some could even show by their hospital cards. As part of hospital routine people are weighed if they are not feeling well. Some of these records were quite useful.

Table 4.9 and Figure 4.11 below show that before the FTLRP 48% of the sample population experienced a drop in body weight due to food shortages. After the land reform programme only 18% of the sample population experienced minor body weight loss. That represents 57 households in the sample population. It is evident from Figure 4.11 that there was a drop in the number of people that lost weight by 30%, this is equivalent to 96 households. Figure 4.11 below shows that 32% of the households said that loss of weight was not a general trend among their members. The families also experienced a severe food shortage. There was an improvement of up to 16% drop after the FTLRP. Table 4.8 shows that there was a huge rise in families that never had any of its members lose weight before or after the FTLRP. Before the FTLRP 18% of the families (57 households) had some of their members losing weight compared to

the 62% (199 households) after the FTLRP who said they never lost weight. The two diagrams below illustrate the trends in weight lose.

Question: Before/After the FTLRP, did you or any of your family members lose weight because the food was not enough.

Table 4.10: Households with members that lost body weight because there was not enough food to eat.

	Often	Sometimes	Never	Very Rare
Before the FTLRP	67%	23%	5%	5%
After the FTLRP	9%	12%	71%	9%

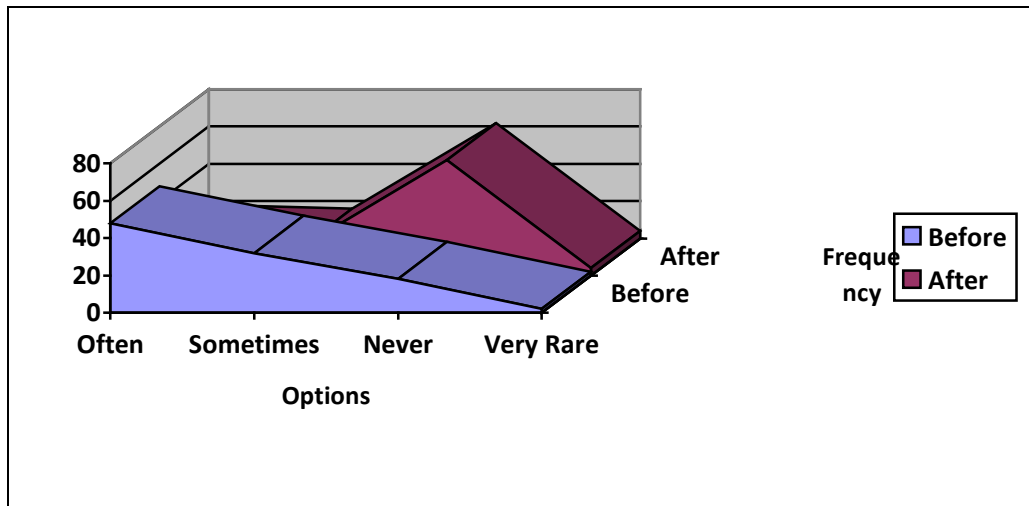


Figure 4.11 Weight lose among households

4.8. Number of meals missed by different households

Missing meals were also a sign that indicated that a family was not food secure. Some families admitted that there were times when they had to go for the whole day without eating anything. Table 4.12 shows the extent of the families who had

to go for a full day without having a meal. The statistics show that 67% of the families had days where they went for a day without a meal because there was no food. This represents 215 families. This can be compared to the much lower 7% after the FTLRP. The two pie charts below show that more households (72%) could confidently say that they never went for a day without a meal. This is compared to the 47% before the FTLRP. Figure 4.12 also shows that 18% of the sample population said it was very rare for them to go for a full day without a meal because they are now producing more. The diagrams below illustrate the trend.

Question: Before/After the FTLRP, did you or any other member of your household not have a meal for a whole day because there was not enough money for the food.

Table 4.11: Members who missed meals the whole day because of food shortages

	Often	Sometimes	Never	Very Rare
Before the FTLRP	67%	23%	5%	5%
After the FTLRP	9%	12%	71%	9%

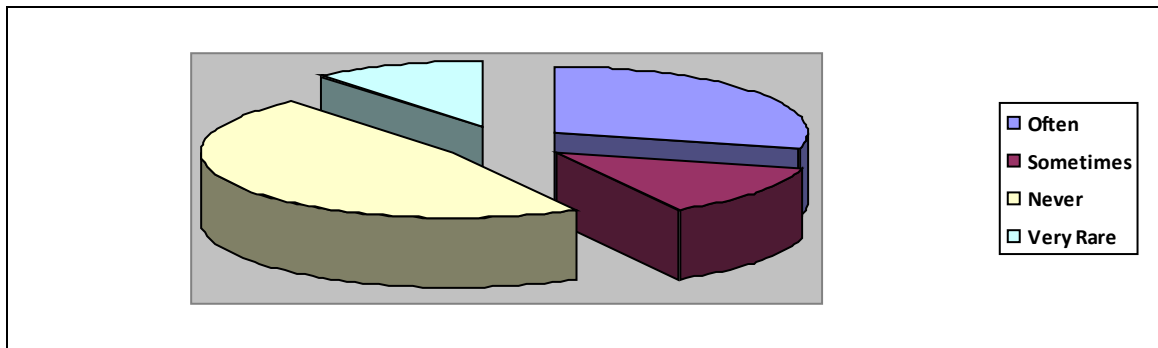


Figure 4.12A: Pie chart showing people who missed meals the whole day before the FTLRP

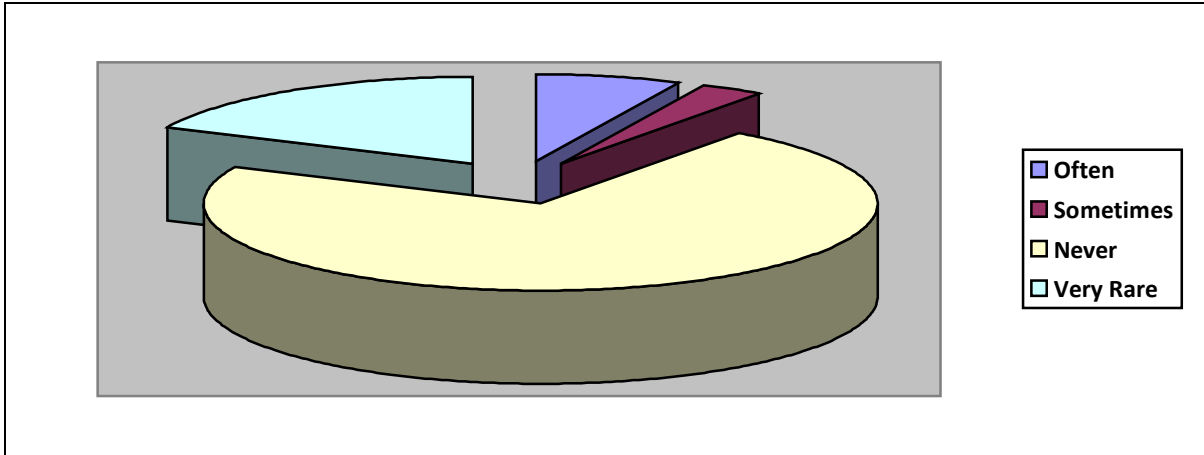


Figure 4.12B: Pie chart showing people who missed meals the whole day after the FTLRP

From the interviews the respondents said that the frequency of people going for a full day without meals was more before the FTLRP than after the FTLRP. For example before the FTLRP most households had challenges with food almost on a day to day basis but after the FTLRP the problems were very isolated.

4.8.1. Children's meals

Children's meals provided a useful indicator for the extent of the Household Food Security in Mutare District. Table 4.13 and Figure 4.13 show that 37% of households (119 families) were forced to cut their children's meals because they did not have enough food. This is compared to 2% of the sample after the FTLRP. Table 4.13 shows that 17% of the household sometimes had to cut their children's food before the FTLRP, compared to 19 families (6%) who were affected by the same problem after the FTLRP. There was a sharp increase as depicted by the surface graph in Figure 4:13 of families who never had to cut the size of their children's food. The percentage before the FTLRP was 24% but after the FTLRP 83% never had to endure the pain of cutting the meals of their children. Below the two diagrams depict the trends.

Question: Before/After the FTLRP, did you ever cut the size of the children’s meals because there was not enough money for food.

Table 4.12: Household that cut the sizes of the children food.

	Often	Sometimes	Never	Very Rare
Before the FTLRP	37%	17%	24%	22%
After the FTLRP	2%	6%	83%	9%

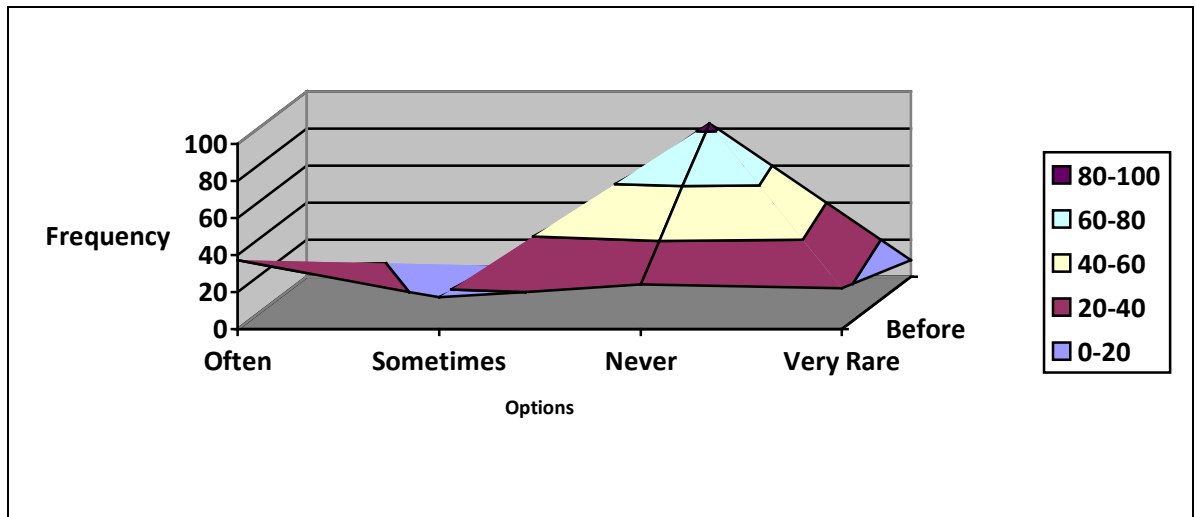


Figure 4.13: Surface chart showing the household that cut the sizes of the children’s food

The statistics collected also show that they were situations where children had to skip meals because there was not enough food in the home. Table 4.14 below shows the situation to this regard.

Question: Before/After the FTLRP, did any of the children ever skip meals because there was no food in the home.

Table 4.13: Household who skipped meals because of food shortages.

	Often	Sometimes	Never	Very Rare
Before the FTLRP	63%	18%	15%	4%
After the FTLRP	7%	4%	83%	6%

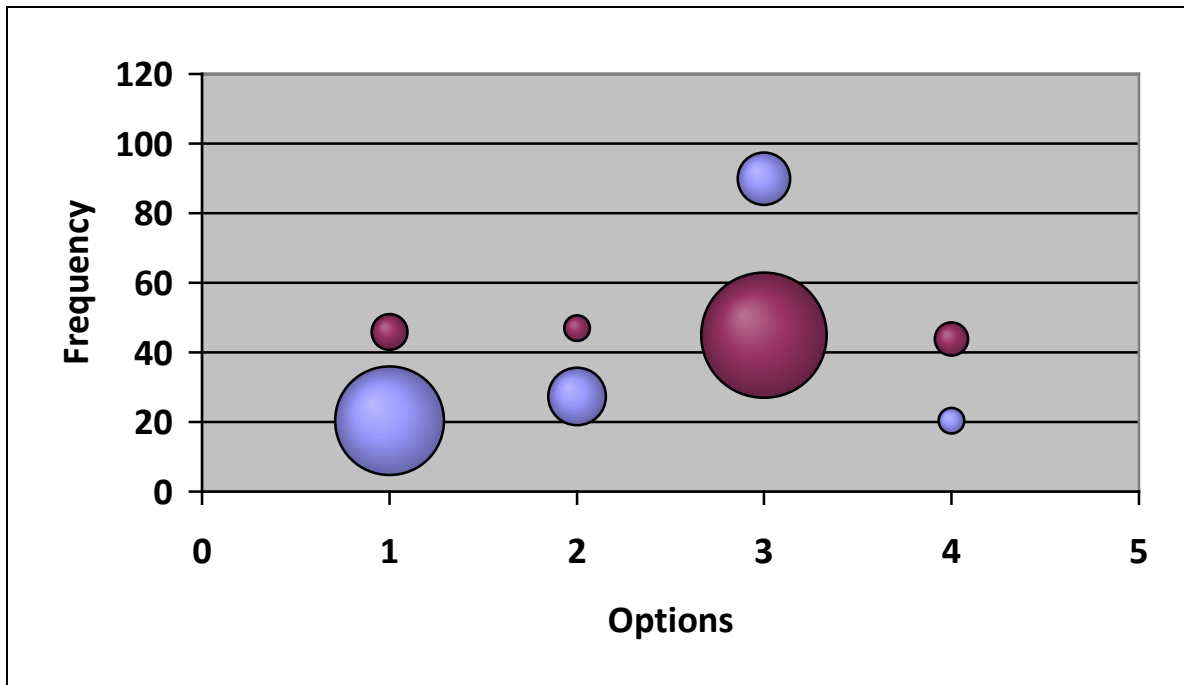


Figure 4.13: Households with children that skipped meals

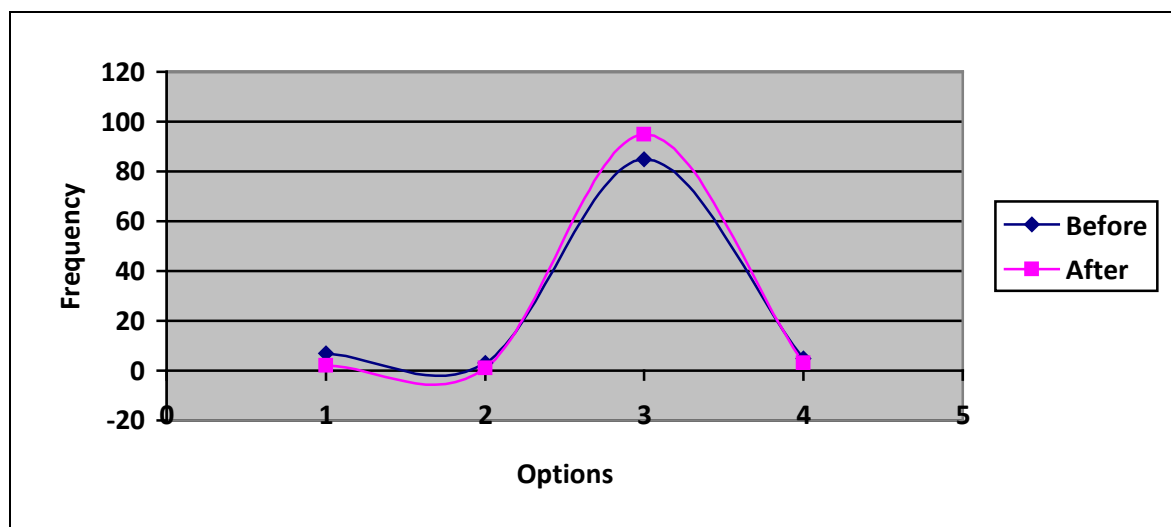
From the two diagrams it is clear that 63% of the households admitted that children under the age of 15 years often had to skip some of the meals because of food shortages. This is unlike the 7% that was collected after the FTLRP. There was a huge rise in the number of families that said that they never had to ask their children to skip meals. The number before the FTLRP was 48 households and after the FTLRP the number become 267 households. These statistics show the extent to which children were hungry.

Table 4.14 and Figure 4.14 show of yet another critical indicator of household food security. This is the extent to which children went for a full day without eating food or a decent meal.

Question: Before/After the FTLRP, did any of the children not have food for a whole day because there was not enough food store in the granaries?

Table 4.14: Children who did not have sufficient food.

	Often	Sometimes	Never	Very Rare
Before the FTLRP	7%	3%	85%	5%
After the FTLRP	2%	1%	95%	3%



Key 1 = Often 2 = Sometimes 3 = Never 4 = Very Rare

Figure 4.14: Children who did not have sufficient food

Table 4.12 shows that very few households had children going for the whole day without food. Where this happened it was for extreme reasons as in examples of child headed families. From the interviews it emerged that 7% said that they often experienced this problem before the FTLRP. This is compared to only 2% after the FTLRP. This is equivalent to only 6 families. The two diagram show that

they were also very few families who said they sometimes had these encounters. The high peaks on Figure 4.14 show the percentage of families who said they never had situation where their children did not have food to eat the whole day. The percentages are 85% before and 95% after the FTLRP. A huge improvement was noted after the FTLRP where only 5% of the household were food insecure to the extent of having a negative impact on the children.

The data collected also show that some families had challenges with storage and cooking facilities. Some families had challenges with firewood for cooking. Most of the forests have been depleted and to look for firewood is quite a challenge and it's the women who bear the burden of the scarcity of firewood.

4.8.2. Availability and excess food In the household

Excess food proved to be another good measure of household food security. If a family can spare some food from the harvest, it showed that they are very secure. Some families had excess to sell or to give other friends and relatives during times of need. The two tables below show the extent to which food could be reserved for storage or for sale.

Question: Before/After the FTLRP did you ever had excess food that you could sell or give to relatives and friends.

Table 4:15 Household that had excess food

	Often	Sometimes	Never	Very Rare
Before the FTLRP	18%	48%	8%	26%
After the FTLRP	78%	9%	9%	3%

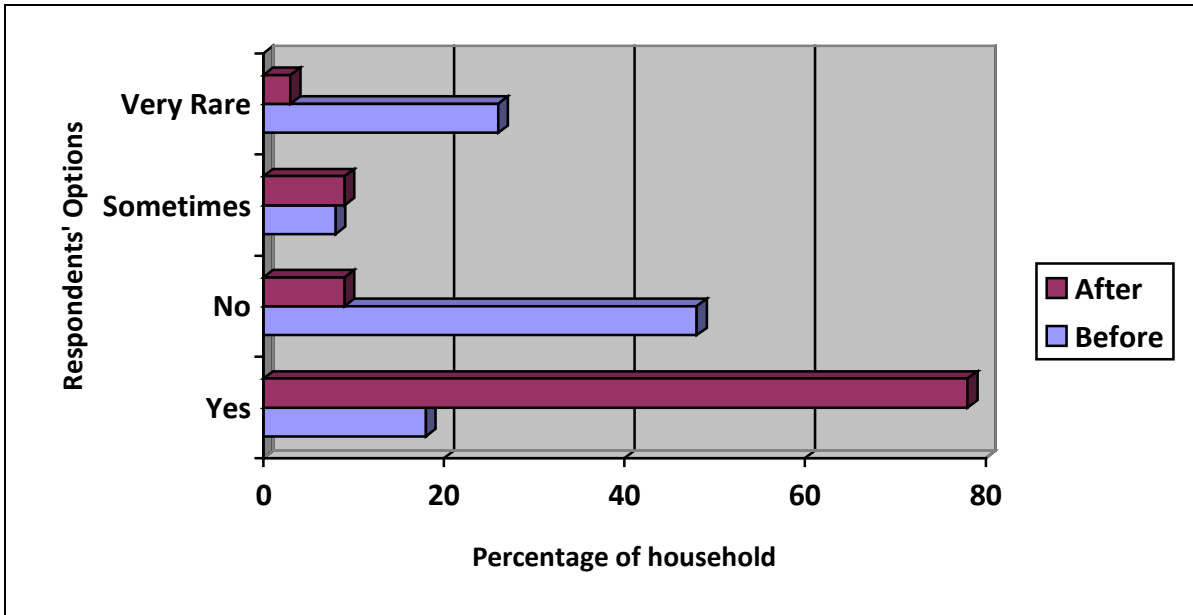


Figure 4.15: Bar graph showing families who had excess food

The two diagrams above show that 18% of the sample population said they had excess food before the FTLRP. After the FTLRP more households had food to spare this is evident by the 78% of families that admitted that they had food to spare to other people or by selling the food for other needs. Figure 4.15 show that only 9% of the respondents said they did not have food to spare after the FTLRP, this represents 28 families. This can be compared to 48 families before the FTLRP who said they could not spare any food. It showed that more households had more food after the FTLRP.

4.8.3. Information On Harvests

Question: How many tones did you get from maize, groundnuts, potatoes and cassava

Table 4:14: A bar graph showing the average yields of different crops.

	Maize	Groundnuts	Potatoes	Cassava
Before the FTLRP	0.6 t	0.6 t	0.7 t	0.6 t
After the FTLRP	6.8 t	3.8 t	2.8 t	2.6 t

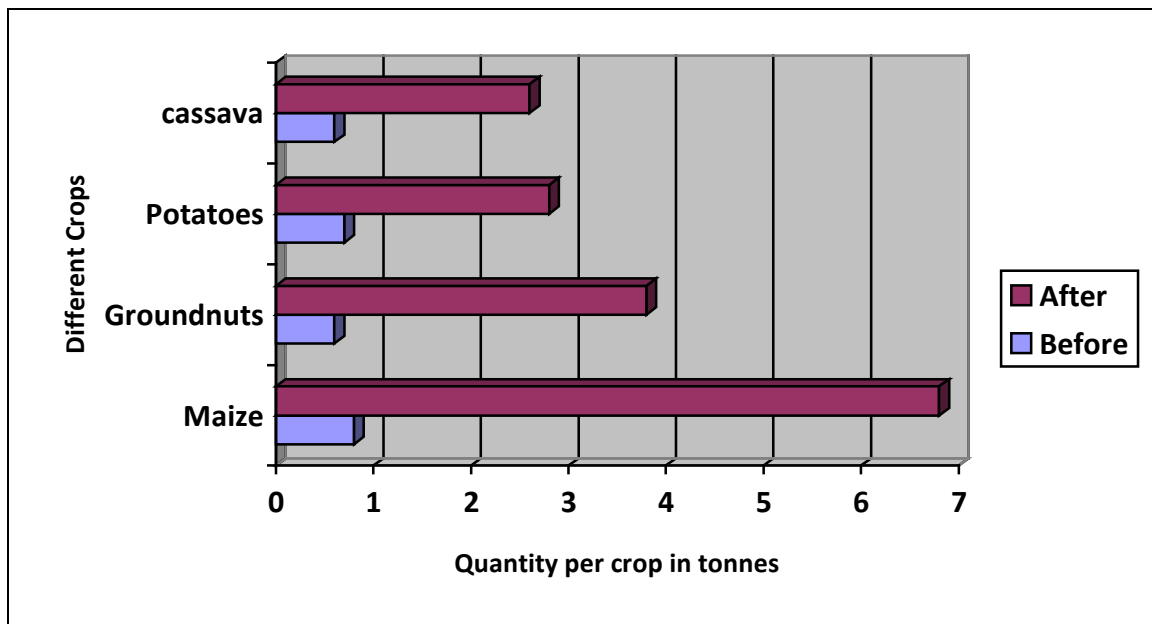


Figure 4.16: A bar graph showing yield of different crops

The two diagrams above show that the FTLRP brought about higher yields in all the crops. Table 4:16 shows that an average of 0.8 tones were realized from maize compared to the 6.8 tones realized after the FTLRP. Potatoes which is also a common crop in this district increased from 0.7 tones before the FTLRP to 2.8 tones. Most of the families were happy that they could now realise higher yields.

4.9. Conclusion

This chapter was a feed back of the interviews that were conducted in Mutare District, Zimbabwe. 322 people were interviewed using the interviewer administered questionnaire. The information from the respondents show that most people could not eat the kind of food they wanted before the FTLRP. People eat low cost food and sometimes they skipped meals because they could not afford to eat the food they wanted. This worried people most of the times. The statistics also show that when people were given more fertile land people now had better harvests and this improved the quality of the food that they eat. The diet for the children was improved. The general yields in the fields were greatly increased.

5.0. CHAPTER FIVE: SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATION

5.1. Introduction

This chapter is the last chapter in this research. In this chapter a summary of the entire research proceedings will be given and then conclusions of the research given. The research is going to discuss whether the FTLRP resulted in a positive or negative effect of Household Food Security situation. Circumstances, under which the conclusions were derived at, will be discussed. This chapter will then proceed to give recommendations of the research. The recommendations will help the community and policy makers to prepare for future related programmes. The recommendations will empower the authorities with appropriate measures to mitigate any negative impacts of related programmes. Lastly this research will also help identify gaps which could act as fertile ground for future research.

5.2. Summary of research

The problem arose from the Fast Track Land Reform Programme (FTLRP) which occurred in Zimbabwe starting 1998. The researcher then embarked on a study to assess the impact of the FTLRP on household food security in Mutare District. The rationale of the research was to influence policy changes on future land reform programmes through an investigation of the impact of the FTLRP.

The objectives of this research were to document Household Food Security before and after the FTLRP. This would later on be followed by an investigation into the impact of the programme in the light of the changes noted in Household Food Security before and after the FTLRP. To achieve this, the research used the survey research design. Interviews were conducted to collect the relevant data. Some challenges encountered during the data collection process include

the exorbitant cost associated with field work and the sensitive nature of the subject in the highly politicised communities in Mutare.

The data was grouped and analysed using the Statistical Package For Social Sciences Software (SPSS). Some of the indicators used in the analytical framework to assess the level of Household Food Security include availability of food in the home, number of meals taken, food stores available, harvests made and income from sale of crops. The sample used for this research had 322 household heads. The random stratified sampling method was used to select people who would take part in the research.

Throughout the research, ethical consideration associated with working with people we all observed. Consent forms were given and signed out before the commencement of the interviews. People were told in detail what the research involved. People were also assured that all information would be treated in confidence. They were also asked to give pseudo names to protect their identity.

5.3. Conclusions/results in the research

5.3.1. Households had more food after the FTLRP

The statistics from this research shows that many household had more food after the FTLRP. Before the FTLRP Most household heads said that food in the homes continued to dwindle by the day because their farms which were situated in poor soils could not continue to sustain them. The yield correspondingly become less and less. Though poor soils was not the only inhibiting factor other causes of the low food in the homes include the poor rains which were now coming rather late (Global warming effects), sanctions put by other countries on Zimbabwe, low investment in agriculture by government and disruption of farming activities as the unrest began to build.

After the FTLRP families moved into the farms and started producing more than they did in the communal areas. With the government support on agriculture after the FTLRP most families realised that the food they had was much more than they had in the communal areas. In this regard there was a positive impact of the FTLRP on Household Food Security. After the FTLRP many families did not have to eat low cost food stuffs and they did not even have to worry that their food would run out. This was a good indicator of the improved Household Food Security status.

The income raised from the sale of crops also increased. Under normal circumstances people do not sell if they do not have sufficient food. So if people realise even more money from the sale of more food crops that means their yields are increasing. It also means that the family can now cater for other family needs like school fees, transport and food from the stores. All these indicators relate to an increased Household Food Security status.

Due to the increased food supplies after the FTLRP, families started to eat the three traditional meals. In some cases some households could afford to have more. The meals were now well balanced. It was evident the issues of meal skipping and reducing the size of adults meals to give to the children was now a thing of the past. Even the food for the children now sufficed the standard needs as recommended by the local dieticians.

In other words households had a improved Household Food Security status through the increased yields. Though the yields were much less than the yields by the former white farmers, the new farmers had enough for their families. Again the new farmers had more for their families but their contribution towards the national granary store was very little. This caused a lot of food shortages in the country among the population who were not farmers.

5.3.2 Households had more food reserves

The research showed that food reserves began to increase after the FTLRP as compared to their food reserves in the communal areas. Most families now had enough until the next agricultural season. But as mentioned before the yields dropped from the levels of the former white farmers. But all the same the new farmers had enough food to eat. They did not have to worry that their food would run out before the next farming season.

These results however show that the FTLRP had a positive impact on the Household Food Security status of the new farmers. The farmers now had more food as compared to when they were in the communal areas.

5.3.3. Children's diet as a measure of household food security

Children under the age of 5 years or 15 years now eat more food after the FTLRP. Household Food Security is greatly compromised if a family cannot adequately feed the children. Children form part of the last signs of desperation as regarding Food Security. In this case the research showed that children eat more food. Some of the families even complained that before the FTLRP some of their children were now developing signs of malnutrition related diseases like kwashiorkor.

This was not the case after the FTLRP non of the children showed any signs of malnutrition. All these are signs that showed that the Household Food Security status for most families improved. Other factors like the new multi-currency system after the FTLRP could have aided in the improvement of the Food Security in the home. It could have been difficult to sell their produce in an unstable currency. Another factor that helped in the stabilisation of the food in the family is the availability of food in the stores. Never the less it came out that

despite all the other factors the fact that new farmers were now producing more for their households helped to improve the Household Food Security status of their families.

5.3.4. Households had more food for the adults

After the FTLRP most of the adults in the majority of the households had more food to eat. Adults did not have to skip meals, cut the size of their meals or give some of their food to the children. Very few adults said that they went hungry after the FTLRP or did reduce the size of their meals because of the scarcity of food. Over and above that, the adults had so much choice on the food eaten in the home because they could buy more food in the stores using the money realized from the sale of some of their crops. This again showed that the household food security for the household had improved. Hence it can be attributed to the FTLRP which saw people getting large expanses of fertile lands to farm.

5.3.5. Most families enjoyed good food and good health after the FTLRP

There are many factors that can contribute to body weight loss one of them can be stress, sickness or genetic make of one's body. But it is generally acceptable in the area of the study that malnutrition results in body weight loss. This was also evident from the hospital cards of some of the sample populations. The data collected to this regard show that most of the people gained weight after the FTLRP. With the exceptions of some who were sick and some who were stressed by other issues of no importance to the study.

Many people admitted that most of them lost a lot of weight especially during the period just before the Land Reform Programme. The general weight gain experienced after the FTLRP is testimony of the positive impact the FTLRP

programme had on the Household Food Security. That means more families had more food after the FTLRP resulting in people having adequate to eat hence the general trend of increase in body weight by the sampled group. In this regard this indicator supports the assertion that the FTLRP had the effect of improving the Household Food Security among most of the families in Mutare District.

5.3.6. More households did not cut their food

The data collected show that most of the households had more food after the FTLRP and hence they was no need to skip some of their meals. Before the FTLRP some families skipped some meals, eat unbalanced diets or went for a full day without food due to the scarcity of the food among the sample population. This simply shows that the FTLRP had a positive impact on the Household Food Security of most households

5.3.7. Farmers had an increase In yields after the FTLRP

There was a general increase of the yields from the farm after the FTLRP. The data collected show that they was a general increase in yields per hectare in most of the households. That translates to a positive impact by the FTLRP on the Household Food Security. That means the FTLRP improved the livelihoods of people because of the increased food supply. This alone is an indication that the FTLRP has a positive impact on the Household Food Security status in Mutare District as it had increased food among most households.

5.4. Recommendations

A number of recommendations are made following the successful realization that the FTLRP has had a positive impact on the Household Food Security status.

These will further assist in improving the Household Food Security in future programmes. The recommendations are as follows:

5.4.1. New farmers failed to feed the nation

Despite the fact that one of the objectives of the FTLRP was black empowerment through the improvement of the Household Food Security of the ordinary citizens, the new farmers however failed to fulfill some of the fundamental objectives of the FTLRP. This was to provide adequate grain to the nation. To that regard this research recommends that the relevant policy makers start making investigations in the far reaching implications this has on the Food Security status of Zimbabwe as a whole. The policy makers should strategise and see how best they can return Zimbabwe to its former position of bread basket of Africa. The policy makers should look into the effects of the current scenario where Zimbabwe is now importing grain from neighbouring countries to augment its supplies.

If the new farmers can step up their harvests to feed the nation and also export this will continue to boost their Household Food Security in the sense that there is now more food and more money from the sale of other crops. This will further increase the Food Security of other families in Zimbabwe who do not have farms.

5.4.2. Government should increase support to new farmers

This research recommends that the government increases support to the new farmers. This support can be through the timely provision of inputs like fertilizers, seed, fuel, tillage and chemicals. The government should also extend technical and logistical support to the new farmers. The government should make sure that the farmers are accountable to the government for all the assistance rendered. When the time for payback is due this should be enforced so that farmers take this venture seriously.

In the past many farmers have gone without paying government agricultural loans. If this trend is to continue some farmers will end up just getting loans, spending them on luxury cars and then forget the core business of farming. Loans should be followed up, paid in time and paid in full. Farmers who sell fuel and inputs allocated to them should be handed in so that the arm of the law deals with them.

If the government supports the new farmers sufficiently this will help the new farmers increase their food production and thus increase their household food security and that of other citizens who are not farmers. This will ensure that the production of farm produce is abundant on the markets. This will have a positive effect of reducing prices in the stores. This will further ensure a good Household Food Security for the entire country.

5.4.3. Adequate planning should be done in future

In future all agricultural related programmes should be well planned on the basis of sound policy. Adhoc programmes should be avoided as they have damaging effects on the economy of the country. Before a similar programme is conducted it should be clear what needs to be done, by whom and when. Other questions like who is going to benefit, when? and how? should be asked.

A clear road map on any such programme should be well debated in parliament so that the best possible methodology can be used. This will help enhance the benefits and mitigate the negative impacts of such programmes. Proper planning will enable households to boost their Household Food Security.

5.4.4. Violence should be condemned at all cost

The violent nature of the FTLRP in some areas should be condemned at all costs. This left a trail of destructions and loss of life. Many white farmers were unfairly evicted from their farms and some even lost their lives in the process. This violence is not useful to the country's development. This is true for Zimbabwe because some countries responded by imposing sanctions on Zimbabwe.

The effects of the sanctions on the ordinary Zimbabweans has far reaching effects as compared to the benefits of the Land Reform Programme. Policy makers should ensure that any programme should be conducted very peacefully and in an orderly manner, this will further enhance some of the benefits of the Land Reform Programmes like improving the Household Food Security of the people

Violence is destructive it disturbs farm activities and hence disturbs farming operation. As a result the Household Food Security will be negatively affected as yields will decrease.

5.4.5. Interested people should take farming fulltime

The government should ensure that all people who want to continue farming under this programme should do so full time. The country is victim to people who just took land and then went to stay in towns. This land is being underutilized and then at the end of it all the Food Security status of the country is affected. To that effect all part time farmers should have their farms repossessed and given to people who are serious about farming. Exceptions can be given to people with an organized workforce with farm managers resident on the farms. Most of these farms are productive and should be spared.

Again all people should own only one farm in the best interest of other people who also want to venture in the farms. All multiple farm owners should declare some of their farms. Failure to do so, those farms should be repossessed by government. This research also found out that those farms with the landlords present on the farms did very well hence their Household Food Security was improved.

5.5. Possible areas for future research

Future researchers could make use of other gaps from this research that could be developed into research grounds. Some of these areas include the following:

5.5.1. The impact of the FTLRP on the economy of Zimbabwe.

5.5.2. The effects of the FTLRP on the national food supplies in Zimbabwe.

5.5.3. Impact of the sanctions on the household food security.

5.6. Conclusion

This chapter has given the summary of the research. It has also given the major conclusions in this research. The chapter proceeded by giving the recommendation that will help in enhancing the household food security in future programmes. A few possible fertile grounds for future research were also given. By and the large this research has concluded that the FTLRP in Zimbabwe had a positive impact on the Household Food Security of people in Mutare District.

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APPENDIX 1

Research interview form

Introductory note

This interview is part of a Dissertation that will be submitted to the University Of South Africa (UNISA) in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Masters Degree In Human Ecology. The instrument will collect data on the topic “A study into the effects of the Fast Tack Land Reform on Household Food security. A case of Mutare, Zimbabwe”

You are kindly asked to help towards the success of this project by sharing your experiences during the interview. Please give your honest views on the questions given.

The researcher has permission from The University Of South Africa to carry out this Research. Feel free to respond to all the questions. Please note that all responses given will be treated in absolute confidence.

I want to thank you in advance for your cooperation in the quest to add to the body of knowledge in the field of Human Ecology.

Thank you,

R. A. Mudefi

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT FOR THE INTERVIEWS

Instructions to interviewers

Kindly put a tick to the response which best describes the situation of the respondents. For questions which are not applicable to the respondents please kindly mark with an X on that question number. Please note that the period before the Fast Track land Reform Programme (FTLRP) is the duration from 1990 to 1999. The period that will be referred to as the time after the FTLP is the period between 2002 to date.

ADDENDUM A: DEMOGRAPHIC INFORMATION

Interview schedule No Date

District..... Village/ location.....

1.1. How many members are there in your household?

- Below 3. Between 4 and 5. Between 6 and 7.
 Above 8.

1.2. How many members of your family are males?

- Less than 3. Between 4 and 5. Between 6 and 7.
 Above 8.

1.3. How many members of your family are male females?

- Less than 3. Between 4 and 5. Between 6 and 7.
 Above 8

1.4. How many members of your family are children? (Under 18 years).

- Below 3. Between 4 and 5. Between 6 and 7.
 Above 8.

2. Gender of the head of household.

- Male. Female.

3. Age of head of household at last birthday.

- Below 20 years. between 20 and 29. Between 30 and 49.
 Above 50 years.

4. Marital status of head of household.

- Married. Single. Divorced.
 Widowed.

5. Highest educational level of the head of household.

- Gr. 7 and below. Form 2. Form 4.
 Certificate and above.

6. Are you formally employed?

- Yes, full time. Yes, part time. No.
 No, I am self employed.

7. If yes, in what section of the economy do you work?

- Agriculture. Civil servant. Industry.
 Small and medium Enterprise. Other specify?

8. Before the FTLRP in what section of the economy did you work?

- Agriculture Civil servant Industry
 Small and medium Enterprise Other specify.....?

ADDENDUM B: FOOD AVAILABILITY IN THE FAMILY

9. Which of these statements best describes the food eaten in your household before the FTLRP?

- We always had enough to eat the kind of food we wanted.
- We had enough to eat but not always the type of food we wanted.
- Sometimes we did not have enough food to eat.
- We did not have enough food to eat.

10. Which of these statements best describes the food eaten in your household after the FTLRP?

- We always have enough to eat the kind of food we want.
- We have enough to eat but not always the type of food we want.
- Sometimes we do not have enough food to eat.
- We do not have enough food to eat.

11. If you chose the third or the fourth response in question 9. Please select any of the following reasons which best describe your situation. If you chose the first and second response please proceed to question 12.

- The food in the stores was very expensive.
- I was out of employment.
- We did not have enough farming inputs.
- Yields are now low due to low rainfall.

12. If you chose the third and fourth response on question 10 please select the reason which best describes why you cannot have the type of food you want. If you chose the first and second response please proceed to question 13.

- There were good rains.
- We had many projects.
- We had enough inputs.

We now had enough land to farm

.

13. “Before the FTLRP, I was very worried because I was afraid our food would run out”

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

14. “After the FTLRP, I am very worried because I am afraid our food can run out”.

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

15. Before the FTLRP, what was the average monthly total cost of your groceries in United States Dollars.

Below \$20. Between \$21 and \$70.
 Between \$71 and \$200. Above \$200.

16. After the FTLRP, what was the average monthly total cost of your groceries in United States Dollars.

Below \$20. Between \$21 and \$70.
 Between \$71 and \$200. Above \$200.

ADDENDUM C: FOOD RESERVE AND STORAGE

17. “Before the FTLRP, The food that we harvested never lasted us long”.

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

18. “After the FTLRP, The food that we harvested never lasts us long”.

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

ADDENDUM D: NUMBER OF MEALS EATEN BY THE FAMILY

19. "Before the FTLRP, We could not afford to eat balanced meals"

(Research assistants to explain the term balanced meal)

Often . Sometimes. Never. Very rare

20. "After the FTLRP, We can no longer afford to eat balanced meals"

(Research assistants to explain the term balanced meal)

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

21. "Before the FTLRP, We relied on a few kinds of low-cost food to feed the children because we were running out of money to buy food".

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

22. "After the FTLRP, We rely on a few kinds of low-cost food to feed the children because we are running out of money to buy food".

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

23. "Before the FTLRP, We could not feed the children on a balanced meal because we couldn't afford that".

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

24. After the FTLRP, we could not feed the children on a balanced meal because we couldn't afford that".

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

25. Before the FTLRP, the children were not eating enough because we just could not afford enough food".

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare

26. After the FTLRP, the children are not eating enough because we just cannot afford enough food”.

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

27. Before the FTLRP, did you or other adults in your household ever cut the size of your meals or skip meals because there wasn't enough money for food?”

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

28. After the FTLRP, did you or other adults in your household ever cut your meals or skip meals because there wasn't enough money for food?”

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

29. Before the FTLRP, did you ever eat less than you felt you should because there wasn't enough money to buy food?”

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

30. After the FTLRP, did you ever eat less than you felt you should because there wasn't enough money to buy food?”

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

31. Before the FTLRP, were you ever hungry but didn't eat because you could not afford enough food?”

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

32. After the FTLRP, were you ever hungry but didn't eat because you could not afford enough food?”

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

FOOD FOR THE ADULTS AS A MEASURE OF HFS

33. Before the FTLRP, did you or any of your family members lose weight because there was not enough food?"

- Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

34. After the FTLRP, did you or any of your family members lose weight because there was not enough food?"

- Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

SKIPPING MEALS

35. Before the FTLRP, did you or other adults in your household not have a meal for a whole day because there wasn't enough money for food?"

- Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

36. How often did this happen?

- Almost every month. Some months.
 Only in two months. Only in one month.

37. After the FTLRP, did you or other adults in your household not have a meal for a whole day because there wasn't enough money for food?"

- Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

38. How often did this happen?

- Almost every month. Some months.
 Only in two months. Only in one month.

39. Before the FTLRP, did you ever cut the size of any of the children's meals because there wasn't enough money for food ?"

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

40. After the FTLRP, did you ever cut the size of any of the children's meals because there wasn't enough money for food?"

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

41. Before the FTLRP, did any of the children ever skip meals because there wasn't enough money for food?"

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

42. After the FTLRP, did any of the children ever skip meals because there wasn't enough money for food?"

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

43. Before the FTLRP, were children ever hungry because you just couldn't afford more food?"

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

44. After the FTLRP, were children ever hungry because you just couldn't afford more food?"

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

45. Before the FTLRP, did any of the children not have food for a whole day because there wasn't enough food stored in the granaries?"

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

46. After the FTLRP, did any of the children not eat food for a whole day because there wasn't enough food stored in the granaries?"

Often. Sometimes. Never. Very rare.

47. Before the FTLRP, did you have access to good cooking and storage facility for your food?

- No. Yes.
 Had good cooking facilities only. Had a good storage facility only.

48. After the FTLRP, do you have access to good cooking and storage facility for your food?

- No. Yes.
 Have good cooking facilities only. Have a good storage facility only.
Above \$200.

ADDENDUM E: EXCESS FOOD AVAILABLE TO SELL AND SPARE

49. Before the FTLRP did you have excess food that you could sell or give to relatives and friends?

- Yes No.
 Sometimes. Very rare.

50. After the FTLRP did you have excess food that you could sell or give to relatives and friends.

- Yes No.
 Sometimes. Very rare.

ADDENDUM F: HARVEST TABLE

Please kindly fill in the table on the next page which will help to show the pattern of your yield before and after the FTLRP. The values recorded reflect the average yield of farmers in the past ten years before the FTLRP and ten years after the FTLRP. The District harvest table is a guide to the district averages.

51. HARVEST TABLE - BEFORE THE LAND REFORM

MAIZE		GROUND NUTS		POTATOES		CASSAVA	
Dist. Av	Farmer	Dist. Av	Farmer	Dist. Av	Farmer	Dist. Av	Farmer
Below							

52. HARVEST TABLE - AFTER THE LAND REFORM

MAIZE		GROUND NUTS		POTATOES		CASSAVA	
Dist. Av	Farmer	Dist. Av	Farmer	Dist. Av	Farmer	Dist. Av	Farmer

Key

Dist. Av - District Average

Farmer - Farmer's entry

THE END, THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!